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ABSTRACT

A study was conducted to ascertain the extent to which instructors incorporated reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies into the methods courses of secondary social studies preparation programs. A questionnaire was mailed to the instructors of social studies methods courses at the colleges and universities in Region Four of the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU) organization. The questionnaire requested that the respondents indicate the degree of emphasis that they place on 20 different reading- and writing-to-learn strategies. The five response alternatives ranged from the category of unaware (the instructor was unfamiliar with the specified strategy) to the category of model (the instructor informed, instructed, and modeled the specified strategy in their social studies methods courses). Twenty-one replies, a 75% response rate, were used to summarize the findings. Results indicated that each response alternative was indicated by the respondents by the following average percentages when considering all strategies: unaware 16%; none 20%; inform 23%; instruct 23%; and model 19%. These results indicated that the students enrolled in the social studies methods courses taught by these respondents are receiving a minimal depth of instruction needed in reading- and writing-to-learn strategies that will sufficiently prepare them to incorporate the strategies in their own classrooms. (Five tables of data and two figures are included, 108 references are attached. Appendixes include a list of members the Region 4 TECSCU Organization, the final letter and questionnaire, and four tables of data.) (MG)

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ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF RECOMMENDED TEACHING STRATEGIES AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

A Thesis

Submitted

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts in Education

Sandra Lee Baade

University of Northern Iowa

August 1990

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the extent to which instructors incorporated reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies into the methods courses of secondary social studies preparation programs. A questionnaire was mailed to the instructors of social studies methods courses at the colleges and universities in Region Four of the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities organization. The questionnaire requested that the respondents indicate the degree of emphasis that they place on 20 different reading- and writing-to-learn strategies. The five response alternatives ranged from the category of unaware (the instructor was unfamiliar with the specified strategy) to the category of model (the instructor informed, instructed, and modeled the specified strategy in their social studies methods courses). Twenty-one replies, a 75% response rate, were used to summarize the findings.

Results show that each response alternative was indicated by the respondents by the following average percentages when considering all strategies: (a) unaware--16%, (b) none--20%, (c) inform--23%, (d) instruct--23%, and (e) model--19%. From these indications, it would seem that the students enrolled in the social studies methods courses taught by these respondents are receiving a minimal depth of instruction needed in reading- and writing-to-learn strategies that will sufficiently prepare them to incorporate the strategies in their own classrooms.

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Various aspects of content area reading have been investigated since the early 1900s. Commenting on the state of content area research at the time, Dishner and Olson (1989) stated the Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, published in 1925, "provided a clear focus for what has become one of the most researched and discussed aspects of the reading field" (p. 2). Though the focus for content area reading was established in 1925, the Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, published in 1937, depicted a situation pertaining to content area reading that has not yet been resolved. According to Gray's comments in the 36th Yearbook:

> The fact has gained wide recognition that every teacher should be, to a significant extent, a teacher of reading. Although the view that reading is a universal subject has been accepted in theory, much remains to be achieved in actual practice. (p. 6)

Recent research in secondary teacher attitudes (Singer, 1979) indicated that a majority of teachers (58%) agree that teaching reading is a necessary and legitimate part of teaching any content course in the secondary school. However, a significantly larger percentage (91.2%) agree with the content teacher's role in developing reading skills when the phrase learn from text was substituted for reading. That substitution produced 33.2% more agreement on this item of Singer's study, creating a statistically significant difference.

Singer and Donlon (1989) felt that the more favorable attitudes toward the phrase learning from text stemmed from the secondary teachers' definition of the term reading. They stated that:

> Secondary teachers define reading as "learning how to read," something that is taught in the primary grades. They do not see such instruction as their main task. What they do perceive is that their task is to teach students how to learn from text. Hence, they respond much more favorably to this idea. (p. 38)

Typically the term reading is used in educational systems rather than the phrase learn from text. This phraseology predilection may contribute to the fact that reading instruction in the content areas is still not being fully practiced in our secondary classrooms today. If secondary teachers do indeed relate the term reading to the learning to read definition, Gray's (1937) comment that "much remains to be achieved in actual practice" (p. 6) seems to remain pertinent.

Statement of the Problem

Primarily, children do learn to read in the elementary school. However, the process of learning to read does not simply mean breaking the code or the symbols used to represent the language the child uses and is familiar with.

> Reading is <u>thinking</u> cued by text. A text guides and cues a reader to think. As connections are made between the symbols provided in the text and the prior knowledge of the reader, meaning emerges. It is these connections that are the "grits and gravy" of reading. (Vaughan & Estes, 1986, p. 11)

These connections can not be made if the reader is not familiar with the symbols and format being used by the writer, and the information presented.

Most children begin their formal education with a workable understanding of their spoken language and experiences upon which teachers can base instruction. With these elements as the foundation, the emphasis in the teaching of reading at the elementary level is on breaking the code. In other words, beginning reading teachers teach their students the symbols that are used to represent their spoken language, how those symbols are used to represent words, and how those words can be used by an author to convey ideas or thoughts in a written text.

Materials read in school basically fall into two categories: narrative and expository. In very simplistic terms, a narrative piece tells a story and an expository piece relates information. Both types of writing follow styles or patterns that are unique to each format. Traditionally, children learn to read primarily through the use of narrative materials. Thus, they become familiar with the patterns found in narrative material, whether those patterns are directly taught by the teacher or acquired independently by some students. Then, as the children proceed through the successive grades and become more proficient at breaking the code, they are introduced to and more emphasis is placed on expository material. When the shift to expository material occurs, many students flounder because they are not familiar with expository material.

In conjunction with the shift from narrative to expository text, a second shift occurs for students at the higher grade levels. That shift involves a transition from <u>learning to read</u> to <u>reading to learn</u>

or, as Singer and Donlon (1989) refer to the process, learning from text. Learning from text requires students to apply reading skills that they were not introduced to in the narrative material they used when learning to read at the elementary level. Elementary teachers succeed in teaching most students how to read, but they do not sufficiently prepare students for the reading skills required of them at the higher grade levels (Spache & Spache, 1969).

Singer and Donlon (1989) noted that:

> In the intermediate grades, teachers may still teach some students how to read, but they usually do not give instruction on reading in the content areas. That is, they usually do not teach students how to learn from texts in social studies, science, mathematics, literature, and other content areas. If students know how to read, teachers in the intermediate grades as well as those in junior high and high school presume students can read in all content areas. (p. 39)

This assumption is not valid. Students must be taught how to read to learn in specific content material.

Teachers in upper level grades are concerned about the students learning the content of their course (Alvermann & Moore, in press; Vaughan & Estes, 1986), and they often give reading assignments through which they expect students to learn that material. Often, however, they do not provide instruction on how to read the material so this knowledge can be acquired (Herber, 1970). In other words, they do not teach students the process involved in reading to learn in their content-based classrooms. Without direct instruction in the process, the odds of the students becoming independent learners,

hopefully a goal for all teachers and learners (Singer & Donlon, 1989), are left to chance.

Educators have recommended that teachers help students acquire skills in reading to learn since the beginning of the 20th century (Dishner & Olson, 1989). Specific strategies, such as previewing and setting purposes, were suggested as aids in this instruction as early as 1909 (McMurry, 1909). Robinson (1946) suggested the well-known SQ3R (Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review) strategy. Various other strategies, generic as well as content-specific, have been recommended by educators from that beginning point in 1909 (Dishner & Olson, 1989) to the present. Along with previously mentioned strategies, other suggested examples include outlining, summarizing, notetaking, DR-TA, Reciprocal Teaching, graphic organizers, mapping, self-questioning, comprehension monitoring, and direct instruction of text structure (Devine, 1986; Estes & Vaughan, 1978; Herber, 1970; Lapp, Flood, & Farnan, 1989; Moore, Moore, Cunningham, & Cunningham, 1986; Singer & Donlon, 1989).

Even with the early recognition of the need for specific reading instruction in the content areas and the vast number of specific strategies that have been offered to implement that instruction, research today indicates that teaching in ways that use reading and writing processes to learn is not being used by a vast majority of classroom teachers (Alvermann & Moore, in press; Applebee, 1981; Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Dishner, 1985). If we, as educators, truly believe that using language as a learning tool is necessary and

beneficial to our students, but we still fail to incorporate the tools in our classrooms, a normal reaction to this apparent dichotomy is to ask "why?". One answer to this question might be found in the finding that we teach as we have been taught unless we have significant training to do otherwise (Lortie, 1975). A second possible answer to the dichotomy may lie in teacher preparation programs.

Need for Study

It was recommended in The Torch Lighters (Austin & Morrison, 1961) "that the basic reading instruction offered to prospective elementary teachers be broadened to include content and instructional techniques appropriate for intermediate and upper grades" (p. 145). Austin and Morrison further stated, "that a course in basic reading instruction be required of all prospective secondary school teachers" (p. 147). These recommendations have not been ignored. As of 1984, 37 states, including the District of Columbia, had some type of reading requirement for secondary teachers. Within these 37 states, most of the content area teachers were required to complete a college/university credit-hour course covering general reading development methods. Five states had some type of reading requirement for English/language arts teachers only; the remaining 14 states had no requirement for content area teachers (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984). This is encouraging. However, if we were to consider (a) the number of discipline-specific courses that all prospective secondary teachers are required to take to the one or

possibly two reading courses they may be taking (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984), (b) the evidence that we teach as we have been taught (Lortie, 1975), and (c) current classroom practices (Alvermann & Moore, in press), the need to continue the examination of our teacher preparation programs seems evident.

Since the discipline-specific courses outnumber the reading courses, university level students come in contact with a greater number of role models in their specific fields of study. Examination should focus on those discipline-specific courses and the instructors to see if the reading- and writing-to-learn strategies that long have been recommended by educators are being implemented and modeled in these courses at the university level. It is reasonable to assume that many of the discipline-specific instructors have not received the training needed to incorporate reading- and writing-to-learn strategies in their classes because of the type of educational experiences they encounter in preparing for their professions. Thus, the possibility of the strategies being an aspect of the content courses would seem to be minimal.

If the focus of an examination were narrowed to the methods courses of each discipline, one could assume that the strategies would receive more attention in those classes. The primary objective of any discipline-specific methods course is to show college students how to teach young people the concepts and generalizations related to that discipline. Since most learning entails reading and writing, it would seem that the university instructor would need to have a strong

knowledge base regarding the how-to aspects of reading- and writing-to-learn in order to effectively meet the major objective of these courses. Extensive literature review did not reveal the results of any studies that have been conducted which examine the degree to which college methods courses incorporate the teaching of reading- and writing-to-learn strategies.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate the possibility that a problem exists in our secondary teacher preparatory programs. More specifically, the study focused on content area methods courses. The survey was directed to college professors of methods courses and investigated the degree to which professors (a) are aware of reading- and writing-to-learn strategies, (b) inform university students about reading- and writing-to-learn strategies, (c) provide instruction in reading- and writing-to-learn strategies, and (d) model or incorporate the strategies in their instruction. Although it would have been interesting to investigate all content area preparation nationwide, it was not within the scope of this study to do so. Thus, this research focused on social studies methods instructors and courses in Region Four of the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU) organization.

It was hoped that an examination of the results of this study would reveal one possible cause for the discrepancy between the advocated implementation and the actual implementation of content area reading strategies at the secondary level. It was also the hope of

this author that the study would spur additional, more in-depth study of all content areas. From these additional studies, recommendations for possible solutions could be offered, examined, and eventually implemented on a broad scale. This, of course, would require a great deal of effort and time on the part of all educators. But, our future independent learners will be the beneficiaries of our energies and efforts.

Definition of Terms

Expository

Expository is the term given to a form of writing designed to convey information or explain something that may be difficult to understand.

Higher Level Thinking Skills

The acquired ability to meditate or reflect upon ideas or problems at the interpretive and abstract levels is equated with the phrase higher level thinking skills.

Learning from Text

Learning from text is a phrase used synonymously with reading to learn. Reading to learn is defined as the use of reading skills to acquire knowledge, broaden understandings, and develop appreciations.

Narrative

Narrative is the term given to a form of writing in which a person tells a story, actual or fictional, in prose or verse.

Reading to Learn

Reading to learn is defined as the use of reading skills to acquire knowledge, to broaden understandings, and to develop appreciations.

Reading- and Writing-to-Learn Strategies

Educators have developed systematic plans that can be used to acquire knowledge, to broaden understandings, and to develop appreciations through the acts of reading and/or writing. These are referred to as reading- and writing-to-learn strategies.

Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU)

TECSCU is an organization developed by the Deans of Education of institutions of higher learning that are similar in size, emphasize teacher education, and incorporate similar teacher preparatory programs and goals.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

It has long been recognized that the ability to read and understand is necessary if one is to be a contributing member of society. Recently, studies have indicated that many young adults are not acquiring the reading skills that they will need in order to keep pace with the rapidly changing technological environment (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1985) (NAEP). Concerned educators have responded to these findings by attempting to design programs which focus on improving reading and thinking skills. Unfortunately, little progress seems to have been made (Holmes Group, 1986; National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1990).

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the literature related to content area reading instruction. Initially, an overview of the reading process and the type of instruction children receive through the developmental stages of reading will be discussed. The review will then move to the type of reading instruction that has long been recommended but is seldom incorporated into the classroom. Literature which depicts possible explanations for the lack of appropriate reading instruction in the content areas will be included. The review will then reveal some requirements that have been enacted by state teacher certification agencies in attempting to rectify current reading instructional practices. The effectiveness of these requirements will also be discussed. In conclusion, a review of the

literature pertaining to teacher preparation programs in general will be followed by a review of the literature related to content area methods courses.

A search of the Education Research Information Center (ERIC) was conducted on the CD-ROM Silver-Platter system at the University of Northern Iowa to assist in assembling literature for this study. A number of professional books and textbooks were also reviewed to attain additional reference sources. Information was retrieved from books, professional journals, microfiche, and microfilm. Information which was not available at the University of Northern Iowa was acquired through the UNI interlibrary loan service.

Reading: The Process, Development, and Instruction

There are a number of definitions given to the term reading. Usually these definitions are "value-laden, hypothetical statements of what reading ought to be, not neutral statements of what reading is in the strictly definitive sense" (Harris & Hodges, 1981, p. 264). Strang described the effect that certain points of view of the reading process have on reading instruction. She stated:

> If we think of reading primarily as a visual task, we will be concerned with the correction of visual defects and the provision of legible reading material. If we think of reading as word recognition, we will drill on the basic sight vocabulary and word recognition skills. If we think of reading as merely reproducing, we will direct the student's attention to the literal meaning of it. If we think of reading as a thinking process, we shall be concerned with the reader's skill in making interpretations and generalizations, in drawing inferences and conclusions. If we think of reading as contributing to personality development and effecting desirable personality changes, we will provide our students with reading materials that meet their needs or have some application to their lives. (cited in Harris & Hodges, 1981, p. 264)

It is the belief of this author that reading can be perceived as a developmental task, consisting of the interaction of the concepts presented by Strang (cited in Harris & Hodges, 1981), but with an emphasis on the thinking process. Some type of thinking is involved in the act of reading regardless of the point of view of the reading process that we subscribe to, whether the thinking is a conscious or an unconscious act. Reading is also a developmental process, because it involves the continual building and interaction of skills, strategies, and experiences. The building and interaction of skills, strategies, and experiences begin at a person's birth and are a never-ending process.

Estes and Vaughan (1978) stated that there are three stages of reading development which lead to maturity in reading. "These stages are: (1) reading readiness; (2) beginning reading; and (3) elementary reading" (p. 12). Figure 1 graphically depicts these stages and the characteristics that Estes and Vaughan feel correspond to each stage.

The Adler-Van Doren (cited in Estes & Vaughan, 1978) model of reading development replaces Estes' and Vaughan's maturity stage with elementary maturity and identifies three additional levels: (a) inspectional reading; (b) analytical reading; and (c) syntopical reading. Figure 2 presents Estes' and Vaughan's schematic view of the Adler-Van Doren model along with the characteristics of each level.

"The event of reading involves 3 major factors: a reader, a text, and a context" (Vaughan & Estes, 1986, p. 8). According to Vaughan and Estes (1986), the reader brings all of his/her prior

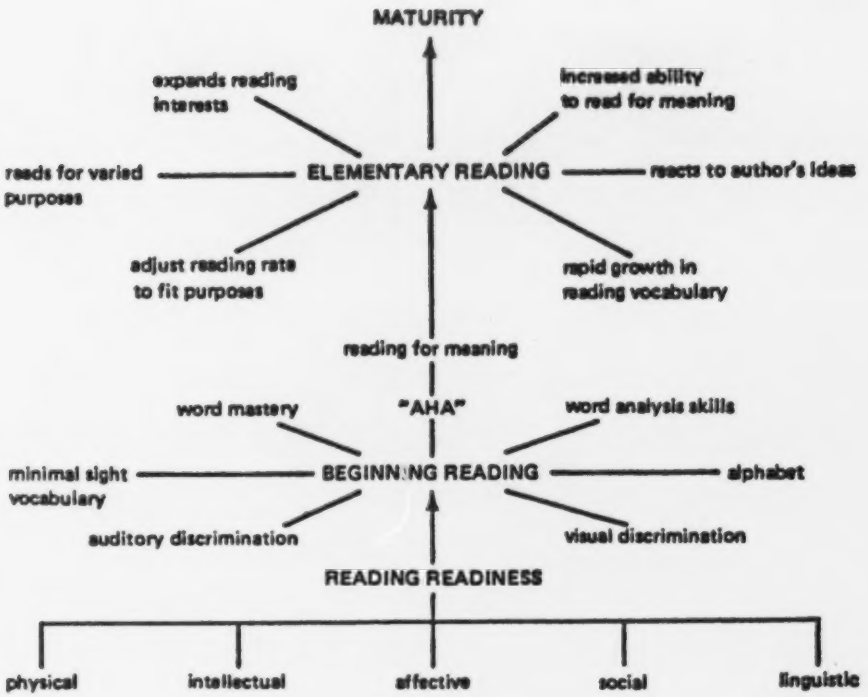

Figure 1. The Three Stages of Reading Development and Corresponding Characteristics. (Estes & Vaughan, 1978, p. 13)

experiences to the reading event. These experiences can be classified in three ways. The first, knowledge, or cognition, includes ideas, beliefs, imaginings, and rememberings. The second, feelings, or affect, encompasses sensations, emotions, and moods. And the third area of classification is inclination, or volition. This includes desires, motives, and intentions.

A second factor is context. The context factor in the event of reading "refers to situational context which is the setting in which a reading event occurs" (Vaughan & Estes, 1986, p. 12).

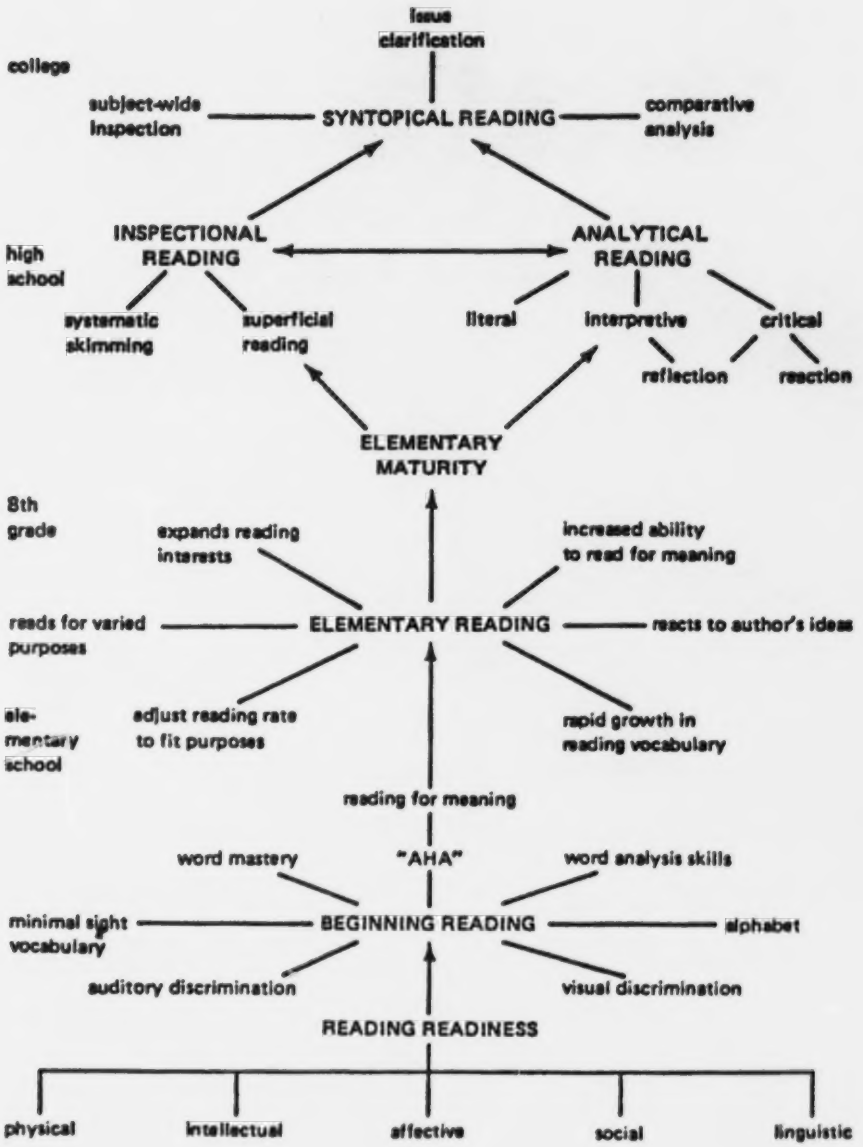

Figure 2. Schematic View of the Adler-VanDoren Model of Reading Development and Corresponding Characteristics (Estes & Vaughan, 1978, p. 15).

Text is the final factor in the event of reading and the only constant factor. The text is used to convey an author's thoughts, feelings, experiences, understandings, or point of view. The author conveys his message through the use of symbols which are representative of the language.

Usually, by the time children begin their formal education, they have acquired a workable understanding of spoken language, along with an adequate amount of skill in the use of that spoken language. Combining these elements with the prior experiences that children bring with them to the classroom, a foundation is available for a teacher to begin systematic instruction of reading.

Traditionally, the aspect of reading that is stressed in instruction at the elementary level is the learning and decoding of the symbols we use to represent our language (Henderson, 1981). Children then, possibly following their instructional role models, "focus on reading as a decoding process, rather than as a meaning-getting process" (Baker & Brown, 1984, p. 358). Brown (1982) stated that "They [the children] do not seem to be aware that they must expend additional effort to make sense of the words they have decoded or of appropriate strategies for coping with words or sentences they do not understand" (p. 32).

It should be noted that this decoding emphasis falls within a skills and subskills, hierarchical perspective of reading that some reading authorities refer to as the bottom-up model (Geyer, 1970; Gough, 1972; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). In the bottom-up model, the

printed text is deemed more important in eliciting meaning than what the reader knows (Durkin, 1981).

In the 1970s, a wholistic or whole language perspective emerged. Some reading professionals refer to this as the top-down model (Goodman, 1967; Smith, 1971). In the top-down model of the reading process, the reader's comprehension is the prime focus of the process, with emphasis on what the reader brings to the text (prior knowledge) to initiate the comprehension. Only when there is a breakdown or loss of comprehension are skills considered relevant.

Then, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, research emerged which advocated neither the bottom-up nor the top-down model, but rather an interactive model which is a combination of the other two. In the interactive model, meaning is created through the interaction of what the author presents in the text and the prior knowledge that the reader brings to the text (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1989; Miller & Kintsch, 1980; Pearson & Kamil, 1977-78; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977).

Even though the interactive and top-down theories have been advocated for approximately 10 and 20 years respectively, their impact is only now beginning to surface in the classroom. This does not mean that the bottom-up theory is no longer being practiced. In fact, reading instruction is still often presented through this skills and subskills approach.

Since the preponderate emphasis of reading instruction is on lower-level reading skills in many elementary programs, there appears to be inadequate instruction in higher level, more critical reading

skills. Evidence of this lack of instruction can be found in a study completed by Durkin (1978-79). Classrooms were observed to ascertain the amount of instructional time spent on reading comprehension instruction. Comprehension instruction would include, for example, the higher level reading skills of drawing inferences, predicting, hypothesizing, and drawing conclusions. In this study, little comprehension instruction was observed. Rather than the teaching of comprehension skills, it was found that teachers spent a great deal of time on comprehension assessment. Teachers typically ask questions which reflect and are relevant to the skills and knowledge they want their students to acquire. In this study the means of assessment was primarily through literal level, factual questions. Durkin stated, "the vast majority of questions focused on facts, many of which were trivial, some of which are no longer 'facts'" (p. 503). Considering the lack of reading comprehension instruction and, for assessment purposes, the overemphasis on factual questions which require only lower-level reading skills, "the habit of indiscriminate acceptance of printed material may become so well established that later instruction in these [higher level] skills would be extremely difficult" (cited in Baker & Brown, 1984, p. 372).

Materials and Instruction

Coupled with the elementary instructional emphasis on decoding, another element is prevalent in the lower elementary grades which inhibits the development of the children's higher level reading skills and strategies--the reading material. In elementary school, most of

the reading that children do, both in reading class and in their recreational reading, is narrative in form. In the reading class, the major source of material is the basal reader. Gray (1988) stated, "Careful examination of these [basal] readers reveals that although the content has broadened in recent years, narrative material still constitutes most of it" (p. 217).

One possible reason for the extensive use of narrative material may be that children are familiar with the structure of narrative material. Since the children are familiar with narrative material, it is reasoned that the teacher can focus instruction on the symbols we use to represent language and on decoding those symbols. A savings in the often limited instructional time comes because teachers do not have to teach the story elements and structure of narrative work as children are already familiar with these structures. According to Hayes (1988), "Children follow a natural progression from hearing stories read to them to reading stories themselves. In this process, children internalize a story's structure, which includes setting, plot, and character development; and develop an understanding of narrative structure" (p. 269). Baumann (1983) stated that:

> Children have much exposure to narratives (stories) prior to formal schooling and also during the primary grades; hence, they have considerable knowledge of story structure (i.e., they have well-developed story schemata) and readily comprehend the main ideas, or important story elements. (p. 329)

But a problem arises when the children move into the upper grade levels and their reading materials are comprised of mostly expository material. For a few years, skills in decoding are still a component

of reading instruction, but they no longer are the emphasis. Comprehending and learning the material presented in expository form becomes more important than the decoding of the material. Comprehension of expository material involves a more in-depth level of understanding as the children progress through the grades, and this requires the implementation of appropriate reading strategies if comprehension is to occur.

Most children are fairly adept at decoding (McGinnis, 1961). They have added a vast amount of experiences to their knowledge base, so the requirement of the use of higher level reading skills that they are basically introduced to at this point in their education does not hinder them when dealing with most of the narrative material they encounter.

But, children have had a very limited exposure to the expository material (Baumann, 1983; Flood, 1986; Gray, 1988; Hayes, 1988) which constitutes the majority of their educational reading materials in the upper grades. Expository writing requires the use of reading skills and strategies in which the children have not received instruction (Armbruster & Gudbrandsen, 1986; Baumann, 1983; Breiter, 1988; Davey, 1988; Durkin, 1978-79; Durkin, 1985; Gray, 1988; Simpson, 1984; Smith & Feathers, 1983a) and with which they are not familiar (Baumann, 1983; Estes, 1973; Flood, 1986; Stewart & Tei, 1983).

Along with the shift from predominantly narrative text to expository text materials, children at the higher grade levels are required to make a second shift; that being a transition from learning

to read to reading to learn or learning from text, according to Singer and Donlon (1989). "Priorities shift from learning to read in the elementary school to reading to learn in the secondary school" (Berryhill, 1984, p. 67). In discussing the shift from narrative to expository material that children encounter in the textbooks from which they are expected to read to learn, Cheek, Flippo, and Lindsey (1989) stated:

> Textbooks are concerned with teaching basic concepts and factual information in such content areas as science, social studies, and health. The emphasis on providing basic concepts and factual information to the reader represents a shift from story structures that are inherent in our culture to expository text that utilizes a variety of organizational patterns. (p. 171)

Literature cites a number of classifications for the expository organizational patterns that Cheek et al. (1989) refer to. These patterns include enumeration, generalizations, comparison-contrast, sequences, cause-effect, time order, and question-answer (Berryhill, 1984; Devine, 1986; Hayes, 1988; Konopak, Martin, & Martin, 1987; Shannon, 1985).

As children face more expository material they experience learning difficulties. According to Cheek et al. (1989), "because of the progressively increasing focus on content-area material, some students moving into higher grades may experience difficulty in successfully comprehending this material" (p. 171).

Research indicates that children do, in fact, have difficulty comprehending expository material (Baker & Brown, 1984; Baumann, 1983; Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984; McGinnis, 1961; Taylor, 1980, 1984, 1985;

Tierney, 1983; Winograd, 1984) and to the degree that only the best readers successfully make the transition to expository material and comprehend its content (Baker & Brown, 1984; Estes, 1973; Roeder & Roeder, 1974; Roller, 1984). The National Assessment of Educational Progress (1985) reported that slight improvements have occurred in reading proficiency since 1971 but, "Nine- and 13-year-olds did not show improvements between 1980 and 1984" (p. 6). They also noted that:

> Six percent of 9-year-olds in 1984 could not do rudimentary reading exercises. . . . Forty percent of 13-year-olds and 16 percent of 17-year-olds attending high school have not acquired intermediate reading skills and strategies.... [and] only about 5 percent, even at age 17, have advanced reading skills and strategies. (p. 7)

One reason that students flounder with expository material is because, as mentioned earlier, they have not received the appropriate instruction in the reading skills and strategies that are necessary to comprehend this type of material. Simpson (1984) stated that:

> Students are unable to regulate their own learning strategies because they are victims of blind training or instruction. Blind training occurs when instructors do not explain the when, where, how, or why in employing a new strategy. To transfer a strategy to another learning situation, students need guided instruction in multiple contexts with explicit statements and demonstrations on the general rule. (p. 138)

Berryhill (1984), in discussing reading to understand social studies material, expressed a sense of agreement with Simpson's (1984) statement. Berryhill stated: "The student needs to develop the reading skills which will enable him to read with understanding the content that is presented in the social studies classroom (p. 67).

Reasons for the Lack of Appropriate Instruction

Berryhill (1984) discussed one reason why content teachers at the upper grade levels fail to provide instruction in the reading skills and strategies that are necessary for comprehension of expository, content material. He stated, "Instructors often assume their students possess the necessary reading skills before they come into their classroom and therefore gear their instruction and assignments accordingly" (p. 71).

Other literature provides further insight into why content teachers do not incorporate instruction in reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies in their classrooms. The most frequently cited reason is the feeling that the teachers' major responsibility at the upper grade levels is to convey content knowledge to the children (Alvermann & Moore, in press; Brown, 1985; Durkin, 1978-79; Gee & Forester, 1988; Hangge, 1985; Herber, 1969; Schleich, 1971; Vaughan & Estes, 1986). Other reasons include the ideas that content teachers: (a) "view reading instruction as that which occurs when remedial teachers work on letter sounds with small groups of students" (Herber, 1969, p. 1); (b) are "assuming that children have learned to read in the elementary school, beyond which they need only to be asked to read to learn" (Estes & Piercey, 1973, p. 20); (c) are "concerned about numerical scores [on standardized tests and] are more likely to focus instruction on the kinds of responses the tests measure" (Hall, 1988, p. 11); (d) felt they were inadequately prepared to teach students to read-to-learn in their content areas (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984);

(e) that the teachers were afraid of making mistakes (Brown, 1985); or (f) that they lacked administrative support or leadership (Gee & Forester, 1988). Furthermore, results of a recent study (Lloyd, 1987a) indicated that many content teachers are not even aware of the strategies and skills that are needed by the children to comprehend the content material.

Content Area Reading Instruction: Recognition, Recommendations, Requirements

It is somewhat difficult to accept these reasons for the lack of the incorporation of reading skills and strategies in the content area classroom considering the fact the need and recommendation to do so has been advocated by many scholars since the early 1900s (Dishner & Olson, 1989). Specific strategies were introduced and described as early as 1909 (McMurry, 1909). Through the years, other strategies, generic as well as content-specific, have been recommended by educators (Brown, 1985; Devine, 1986; Estes & Vaughan, 1978; Hayes, 1988; Herber, 1970; Herber & Nelson-Herber, 1987; Konopak, Martin, & Martin, 1987; Lapp, Flood, & Farnan, 1989; Moore, Moore, Cunningham, & Cunningham, 1986; Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983; Shannon, 1985; Singer, 1983; Singer & Donlon, 1989; Smith-Burke, 1982; Sproule, 1984; Tierney, 1983, Vacca, 1977). Research indicates that the instruction in and the use of various reading skills and strategies produces positive effects in children's ability to read to learn (Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1986; Hangge, 1985; Pearson & Dole, 1988; Santa,

Isaacson, & Manning, 1987; Taylor, 1985; Taylor & Beach, 1984; Wade, 1983).

State educational certification agencies have become increasingly aware of the importance and need for the implementation of instruction in reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies at the secondary level and have taken action to try and rectify the common practices. In 1973, Estes and Piercey reported that "only four states, plus Washington, D.C., require training in reading education for certification of all secondary teachers, an additional four states require this training only for some teachers, usually teachers of English" (p. 21). By 1984, "32 states (63%) had a reading requirement for all academic content area teachers at the secondary level; 5 states (10%) had the same requirement for English/language arts teachers only; 14 states (27%) had no requirement for subject area teachers" (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984, p. 154). A more recent accounting of this trend was not found; but, it was discovered by this author that the state of Iowa, generally acknowledged as a leader in education, does not require secondary education majors to complete a reading course to obtain teaching certification.

Shortcomings in Content Area Reading Instruction

The recommendations to include instruction in reading skills and strategies to learn from texts in the content areas have long been advocated and proven beneficial. The state certification agencies have acted upon these recommendations, but the literature and research indicates that instruction in the content areas is still not occurring

in the majority of schools (Alvermann & Moore, in press; Applebee, 1981; Brown, 1985; Emans, 1982; Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Dishner, 1985; Wolf, 1984).

In a U.S. survey conducted by Irvin and Connors (1989), "many respondents indicated that content area reading instruction should be stressed above all other forms" (p. 309). But this survey also revealed that only 13% of the middle level schools that have been recognized by the Secondary School Recognition program and 14% of the randomly selected middle level schools indicated that content area reading was an important part of their reading program. In the book Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report on the Commission of Reading, (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985) the authors stated that the "most logical place for instruction in most reading and thinking strategies is in social studies and science rather than in separate lessons about reading" (p. 73). Irvin and Connors (1989) stated that, "Our survey indicates that, contrary to this philosophy, reading instruction, when it is offered, is the sole responsibility of the reading teacher" (p. 310). Thus, it appears that while educators recognize the importance of content area reading instruction, this type of instruction is not reflected in current practice.

A study done by Durkin (1978-79) for the purpose of finding, describing, and timing comprehension instruction in the content classroom revealed that "almost no comprehension instruction was found" (p. 481). Gee and Forester's (1988) study of schoolwide reading programs throughout the U.S. indicated that only 18% of the

teachers who responded stated there were content area reading programs in their school systems or that there were plans to incorporate such programs. Peters (1977) stated that "where the content approach exists, only a minority of the teachers within a department use any systematic method for infusing reading skills into their content classes" (p. 514).

Armbruster and Gudbrandsen's (1986) examination of student textbooks and teacher's editions used in social studies programs revealed that:

> Direct instruction in skills was rare; "reading/studying" and "thinking" skills were primarily taught or developed through practice or application of skills that the students had presumably already acquired. The study also revealed a great deal of apparent confusion about what "reading skills" are. (p. 36)

But professionals are not the only ones who recognize the need for content area reading instruction and lack of it from teachers and materials. Students, in a study done by McGinnis (1961), reported that "their high school teachers did not show them how to improve their ability and skill in reading" (p. 95), and that they would have benefited from a reading improvement course. Students who fail to receive instruction in reading skills and strategies that help them learn how to read and comprehend their content materials also do not develop skills needed to become independent learners, hopefully a goal for all teachers and learners (Singer & Donlon, 1989).

Other studies, based on the recognition that there is a resistance to content reading instruction, found that reading played

an insignificant role in the content classroom. According to Ratekin et al. (1985), "fewer than 1% of the observed assignments indicated that teachers expected students to develop concepts from reading texts outside of class. The teacher, not the text, was the primary source of information. Assigned reading during class for the purpose of learning concepts was also absent" (p. 435). In an observational study of social studies classrooms, Smith and Feathers (1983b) found that in one class the "actual reading assigned in 5 weeks was 19 pages of text and 5 to 6 pages of supplementary material--roughly 5 pages per week. The teacher's estimate [of what was assigned] was 8 to 10 pages while students estimated 4 to 6 pages" (p. 52). This same study indicated that students "usually identified the teacher as either the most important source of information or as a source of equal importance with the text" (p. 52).

The studies done by Smith and Feathers (1983b) and Ratekin et al. (1985) also indicated that the primary focus of instruction was on factual learning rather than the internalizations of concepts or higher cognitive objectives, and that instruction was predominantly presented through a lecture format.

Teacher Preparation

The roles that some teachers assume and the methods of instruction that they practice to convey their course objectives have been studied. Research indicates that we teach as we have been taught, unless we have significant training to do otherwise (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Lortie, 1975). Wedman and Robinson (1988) stated that:

> Historically, preservice and inservice teachers have been taught by content teachers who primarily use lecture and question methods to dispense information. In such situations, the reading of content material is assigned with the assumption that students can independently process the content concepts. Consequently, such instructional practices become the primary models from which content instruction is patterned. In order to overcome persistent instructional practices, teachers should be given ample opportunity to learn, practice, receive feedback, and evaluate new strategies. (p. 70)

According to Katz and Raths (1982), "If teacher educators use primarily lecture and discussion techniques in advancing their goals, techniques with doubtful effectiveness in the acquisition of skills and methods, there can be little surprise that teacher education courses are seen as weak in impact" (p. 14). Early (1988) stated that "teacher educators have been realizing that teachers' attitudes and beliefs are more likely to determine classroom practices than are curriculum guides, methods texts, research findings, and the combined wisdom of educational theorists and practitioners" (p. 295). Recognizing the influence that attitude has on teacher practices, Berryhill (1984) stated, "An initial concern in developing content area reading instruction must be developing positive teacher attitudes toward implementation of the program" (p. 74).

The reading classes that are required by many states for secondary education certification (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984) address the need to enlighten future teachers and thus alter their attitudes toward implementing reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies in their classrooms. As recommended by Estes and Piercey (1973) and Roeder and Roeder (1974), many of the university-level

reading classes include understanding the reading process as a course objective. Other topics readily mentioned as being covered in university level reading classes for content area teachers are assessment, comprehension, vocabulary development, strategies/approach to reading instruction, and study skills. Although other topics are specified, the number of university instructors indicating that they covered these topics in their classrooms is negligible (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1986).

These university-level content area reading courses have had a positive effect on teacher's attitudes and practices. In a study conducted at Western Michigan University, Lloyd (1987b) determined through pre- and posttest measures that participation in a reading methods course produced significant changes in students' opinions. At the end of the course, students felt (a) that teachers should be required to take a reading course, (b) that English teachers are not the only ones that should teach reading, (c) that they should know the theoretical processes of reading, (d) that they were obliged to improve their students' reading ability, and (e) that they should help their students read at the interpretive level. Similar results were found in a study done at the University of Tennessee (Christiansen, 1986) and in a study done by Allen (1982). Evidence of the positive influence a preservice content area reading course has on teachers' practices can be found in studies done by Allen (1982), Reeseg (1984), and Stieglitz (1983). Extensive inservice programs in reading for content area teachers also produce positive changes in attitudes and

practices (Dupuis, Askov, & Lee, 1979; Patberg, Dewitz, & Henning, 1984; Wedman & Robinson, 1988).

There is also evidence that content area teachers adjust their learned and often times preferred methods and objectives to fit into the status quo of secondary education (Stewart & O'Brien, 1989). As Lortie (1975) stated, "the predispositions of newcomers become less important through time; the selves of participants tend to merge with the values and norms built into the occupation" (p. 56).

As previously stated, Lortie (1975) also noted that we teach as we have been taught unless we have significant training to do otherwise. Belief in this idea can be inferred from the advocacy of more training in reading skills and strategies by some professionals. Michelson's (1984) study resulted in a discussion on ways reading methods courses may be made more effective. In their article, Stewart and O'Brien (1989) stated that:

> Content reading courses should address the following questions: 1) What is the predominant organizational structure in secondary classrooms and how does it constrain instruction?, 2) What are pedagogical alternatives to "covering" content?, 3) What are tangible benefits of content reading instruction that are positively sanctioned within the predominant organizational structure of secondary schools? (p.401)

Estes and Piercey (1973) said, "the content teacher should seek to familiarize himself with a variety of practical, specific strategies for integrating reading instruction with the content of the course he is teaching" (p. 22).

The developmental reading methods courses that are taken by students seeking secondary teacher certification are filled with

future secondary teachers from all content fields of study (Christiansen, 1986; Farrell & Cirrincione, 1986). A survey of the instructors of the reading methods courses for subject area teachers generated a list of 16 general topics that the instructors designated as important. Content area reading ranked 14th on this list, with only 6.8% of the respondents indicating that they felt it was an important topic to cover (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1986). After examining the syllabi provided by the instructors involved in this survey, Farrell and Cirrincione explained that "the topic [of content area reading] was of short duration and generally limited to 'how to' discussions" (p. 722).

Based on the evidence, it could be inferred that appropriate, specific content reading instruction of skills and strategies is not incorporated into reading methods courses because of the diverse population and the dominant course objectives. It would seem unlikely that a reading professor would have the necessary time during one semester to cover the read-to-learn strategies for each content area specifically, as well as the previously cited topics (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1986) that they felt were the most important (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984).

The type of reading methods courses that many secondary teachers are taking may not be providing them with the skills and knowledge that are needed to effectively combine reading instruction with the content they cover. As noted by Robinson and Good, content teachers:

> Were often unaware of how appropriate reading instruction could effectively be combined with content instruction. One answer to

> this problem would be teacher education that provides information on how teachers can make reading a viable part of all . . . content instruction. (cited in Wedman & Robinson, 1988, p. 65)

Content Area Methods Courses

Instruction in how to implement appropriate and content-specific reading skills and strategies that effectively unite reading and content instruction does not appear to be happening in the majority of the reading courses secondary teachers are often required to take. An investigation of specific secondary content methods courses seemed warranted, then, to see if such instruction was occurring in those courses. Investigation began with methods courses in general and then focused on the field of social studies specifically. Social studies was chosen as the subject of emphasis because of the importance placed on reading in this content area (Berryhill, 1984).

The idea that teachers needed instruction in how to incorporate reading instruction in the content areas appeared in a majority of the literature. Sometimes teachers are aware of reading strategies, but they do not know how to appropriately implement them. In a study completed by Patberg, et al. (1984), their conclusions indicated that, "awareness of reading strategies did not mean an appropriate use of those strategies" (p. 503).

Davey's (1988) survey on how teachers use their textbooks indicated that secondary teachers:

> might profit from attention to (1) grouping strategies for cooperative learning from textbooks, (2) the value of overviewing text selections prior to assignments, (3) the desirability of using a variety of information sources, (4) the importance of ample vocabulary development prior to and following textbook activities, (5) specific strategies for selective reading and

> learning, such as student summarizing, cuing important information, and self questioning. (p. 344)

Wade's (1983) review of research on improving reading in social studies brought her to the conclusion that, "teacher's ability to modify it [design of an instructional program] as they see fit during the implementation phase are crucial components of a successful treatment" (p. 487). A survey investigation completed by McGinnis (1961) in the state of Michigan revealed that: (a) less than 10% of the secondary teachers received any instruction in how to teach reading to their students, (b) about 20% of these teachers were shown how to adjust reading materials in order to meet the reading needs of their students, (c) less than 33% of these teachers were shown how to teach their students to effectively read a chapter, and (d) approximately 33% of the teachers were taught how to show students to read in order to solve problems.

Upon completion of an experimental teaching practicum which involved no cooperating classroom teachers, the participants indicated that they had been "anxious about the 'how-to-do' specifics of teaching reading" (Hodges, 1982, p. 26). Harker (1985) stated that "teachers know what these [reading] skills are, but they don't know exactly how to go about teaching them in their classrooms" (p. 79). Hangge (1985) and Hettinger (1983) also pointed out the need for instruction in how to teach reading skills and strategies.

Many professionals call for changes in our teacher preparatory programs in general and for instruction in reading strategies

specifically. A survey of education-college deans (Richardson, 1987) showed that there was a consensus of opinion among the deans that prospective teachers should develop "the skills of using a variety of teaching strategies . . . that the development of skills and practices be integrated into all education courses" (p. 254).

The participants of an experimental practicum (Hodges, 1982) stated that, "we also need a course on how to teach those [reading skills and strategies] things" (p. 28). Some authors advocate that more practical experience should be included in university methods classes (Breiter, 1988; Early, 1988; Michelson, 1984).

Other authors have developed social studies methods courses that link theoretical ideas to practical applications (Adler & Goodman, 1986; Shive, 1988; Wolf, 1984). Specific reading skills and strategies were not referred to by these authors, but the course objectives implied the need to cover reading strategies. For example, in 1984 Wolf commented on the secondary social studies teachers' need to "acquire skills in preparing appropriate materials and procedures to promote cognitive and affective learning outcomes" (p. 74). The purpose for Wolf's (1984) methods course is to "prepare new teachers who can stimulate students, lead them to important information, involve them in learning, and help them to develop high level thinking skills" (p. 76). In the methods course discussed by Adler and Goodman (1986), they stated that, "As students become familiar with the use of various resources for analyzing history, they are also exposed to specific instructional strategies that correspond to these resources"

(p. 6). Participants in Shive's (1988) course "discussed pedagogical and content issues related to learning" (p. 76).

The proposals tendered by the authors cited all suggest that there is a need to change the current practices in content area methods courses. Others carry this idea one step further and encourage a cooperative allegiance between reading and content area methods instructors. Farrell and Cirrincione (1986) suggested that:

> Reading methods instructors and methods instructors in content areas must cooperate in the preparation of secondary teachers. Each should know the content, focus, and approach of the other's course, and one course should build upon and be integrated into the other. (p. 723)

This collaborative approach may be advantageous if, as Estes and Piercey (1973) said, "Secondary teacher preparatory programs will continue to require numberless hours of pure content and 'teaching of' the same, with little or no consideration of how to cope with reading problems of high school students" (p. 21). A reason collaboration might be helpful was mentioned in an article by Emans (1982). He stated, "professors of curriculum and teaching methodology . . . are the most responsive to, and have the greatest general impact on, the classroom practices of most teachers in most schools" (p. 16). Recognizing the influence content area methods instructors have on their students, Farrell (1985) said, "the methods instructor should be familiar with major investigations in educational psychology and psycholinguistics related to learning . . . he should keep abreast of curricular innovations and projects, and he should be an exemplary teacher" (p. 148).

Even though the literature provides examples of what methods courses should be like (Adler & Goodman, 1986; Shive, 1988; Wolf, 1984), and what methods instructors should do (Farrell, 1985; Farrell & Cirrincione, 1986), there is a paucity of evidence of what is actually occurring in content area methods courses. A recent study by The National Center for Education Information on teacher education, certification, and teacher educators found "very little about teacher educators" (Ciscell & Glass, 1987, p. 28). Information pertaining to teacher educators seems to be limited to characteristics, experience, instructional load/institutional assignment, and scholarly activity. Literature does not focus on the college professor in the teaching laboratory, according to Ciscell and Glass.

A study done by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1987) presented some interesting data. The highlights presented in the summary of the study which were most relevant to this investigation are:

> (a) Secondary education students describe faculty as important role models for selecting teaching as a career.
> (b) Secondary education faculty believe that their students are prepared to assume initial teaching positions, and students concur with this perception of readiness.
> (c) Most secondary education methods faculty have worked in elementary and secondary education before entering the higher education professoriate.
> (d) Secondary education methods faculty work in the field with their students, though not for extended periods of time. (p. 46)

There was no reference to what is being taught or how instruction takes place in the content methods courses in this report.

Summary

This review of research began with a brief discussion of the reading process and the type of reading instruction children receive as they progress through the developmental stages of reading. It was shown that even though specific reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies are needed in, and have long been recommended for our educational classrooms, such instruction is not occurring in many schools.

In trying to discover possible explanations for this lack of instruction, literature dealing with teacher preparation was investigated. Because reading- and writing-to-learn strategies are more closely tied to methods of learning than they are to what should be learned, investigative efforts concentrated on the methods courses that are required for secondary teacher certification.

This review of research reveals some literature dealing with content methods courses in general, but there was a lack of literature describing what is being covered in these courses. Therefore, research in this area was needed to ascertain the content of these courses. More specifically, the questions of this study were: (a) are university methods instructors aware of reading- and writing-to-learn strategies, (b) do these instructors inform university students about the strategies, (c) do these instructors provide instruction in the strategies, and (d) do these instructors model or incorporate reading- and writing-to-learn strategies in their instruction.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURES

This chapter describes the methods and procedures that were used in this study. It contains (a) a statement of the purpose, (b) a description of the population studied, (c) a description of the instrument that was used to collect data, (d) an explanation of the procedure that was followed, and (e) an explanation of the methods that were used to process and analyze the collected data.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to ascertain if reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies are an aspect of content area methods courses at the postsecondary level. The extent to which these skills and strategies are covered by the instructors of the courses was also investigated.

Population

Initially, the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU) organization was chosen as the source from which to obtain the population for this study because of the orientation of the members. The colleges and universities affiliated with this nationwide organization are institutions similar in size which emphasize teacher education and which incorporate similar teacher preparatory programs and goals. It was beyond the scope of this study to include all of the specific content areas methods courses or the 137 colleges and universities that are members of this organization.

Bearing in mind that all of the institutions had similar characteristics, the Region 4 subdivision of the TECSCU organization was chosen for this sample survey because of the location from which this study initiated. Considering the important role that reading plays in the area of social studies, the study was also limited to that specific field.

Region 4 consists of 25 colleges or universities in the states of Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin. Iowa has one university affiliated with the TECSCU organization--The University of Northern Iowa. The pilot study was conducted at this university, so it was excluded from the final investigation. Appendix A contains a list of the institutions which are Region 4 members of the TECSCU organization.

The remaining 24 institutions were contacted via telephone to obtain the names and mailing addresses for the instructors of the secondary social studies methods courses at each institution. This resulted in a list of 31 contacts for the study.

Instrument

A mail survey questionnaire was used to obtain data for this study. This method was chosen for several reasons. First, considering the geographical area involved, the mail survey was the most practical way to obtain the information. Second, the cost involved in traveling to each site for personal interviews far outweighed the cost of a mail survey. Third, a mail survey would allow for reflection and completion at the respondent's convenience.

Fourth, it was hoped that the confidentiality of a mail survey would elicit more truthful responses than might be obtained with a personal interview.

The process involved in formulating the survey took approximately 4 months and included a pilot study with 6 respondents. Personal interviews were conducted with those who participated in the pilot study. Feedback provided by those participants was considered and alterations were made on the initial instrument which reflected their comments and concerns.

The revised survey instrument was divided into four parts and printed on letter-size paper. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and requesting the respondents cooperation also was included. Stamped, self-addressed envelopes were provided for the return of the survey. On the back of the return envelope, the respondents were able to indicate if they would like a copy of the results.

An identification number which corresponded to the mailing list was placed on each survey. This was used for follow-up procedure purposes. Copies of the final letter and questionnaire are included in Appendix B.

The first part of the survey was designed to obtain information regarding the gender, professional rank, and educational background of the respondents. It also requested information regarding the number of years of experience as a social studies methods instructor and the

approximate number of students they have in their social studies methods classes each year.

The second part provided the directions for completing the survey. Response alternatives are clearly defined and are comprised of five scaled items which include the terms unaware, none, inform, instruct, and model.

The third part of the instrument is a listing of the reading- and writing-to-learn strategies that the population was asked to respond to. A brief definition/description is provided for each strategy in order to formulate a more common base for interpretation. Each strategy is followed by the response alternatives.

Part 4 requested that the respondents indicate any other reading- or writing-to-learn strategies they were familiar with. They were also asked to signify the degree of emphasis that they place on each, using the survey's response alternatives.

Procedure

A cover letter, survey questionnaire, and prestamped, self-addressed, return envelope were sent to each contact person on February 16, 1990. Contacts were asked to respond to and return the survey within 7 days of the mailing date. On March 2, 1990, a postcard was sent to each contact not heard from to remind the respondent of the survey and to request that they complete and return the questionnaire that day. A second follow-up, consisting of another letter and another copy of the survey, was sent on March 26, 1990 to any contact who had not yet responded.

Analysis of Data

The collected data were coded, transcribed, and verified through Information Systems and Computing Services at the University of Northern Iowa. The Harris 800 computer system, available at the Computing Center, was used to help organize and analyze the data.

The data collected were examined to determine (a) the frequency distribution and percentage of responses for each strategy listed, and (b) a rank order of the strategies. The response alternatives were equated with a numerical value ranging from 0 (representing none) to 4 (representing model) to compile the rank order of the totals. The data were also examined for possible associations between the descriptive information in the first part of the survey and the response alternatives that were selected for the strategies listed.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the extent to which instructors incorporated reading- and writing-to-learn skills and strategies into the methods courses of secondary social studies preparation programs. To accomplish this, questionnaires were sent to 31 instructors located at the colleges and universities affiliated with Region 4 of the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU) organization. These instructors were identified by contacting each institution by phone and requesting the names and addresses of the people responsible for teaching the secondary social studies methods courses. Twenty-four responses (77%) were received. Three questionnaires were returned unanswered with respondents indicating that they taught courses in other fields of study. These 3 subjects were eliminated from the subject pool. This resulted in a sample size of 21.

This chapter depicts the information derived from the tabulated data. For clarity, the information has been organized into three sections. The first section contains the demographic information related to the respondents. The second section is an analysis of the strategy responses showing the frequency distribution and percentage of responses for each strategy listed, and a composite rank order of the strategies. In the third section, associations between the

demographic information and the response alternative selections are presented.

Demographic Information

Table 1 indicates that 86% of the respondents are male and 14% are female. Two department affiliations are represented, with 62% being in education and 38% in history. In regard to the respondents' professional rank, 48% are professors; 33% indicated that they are assistant professors. The remaining respondents were associate professors, an instructor, and an adjunct.

Close to 43% of these instructors have 21 or more years of experience in social studies method courses. Second to that approximately 29% have taught social studies methods for less than 5 years. Representing 14% each were instructors who have taught courses for 5 to 10 years or 16 to 20 years each. No one indicated experience in the 11-15 years span.

Most of these instructors (43%) have less than 25 students in their methods courses each year. Thirty-eight percent of the responding population indicated that there are 26 to 50 students in their methods courses each year. About 10% have 101 or more students in their methods courses; 5% have 51 to 75; and 5% have 76 to 100.

Analysis of Strategy Responses

Table 2 indicates that within each strategy none of the alternative choices received a majority of the responses. Generally, there is a wide fluctuation in response selection within the strategies. Three strategies did have one area which was not

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	Number	Percentage
Gender		
Male	18	85.71
Female	3	14.29
Department Affiliation		
Education	13	61.90
History	8	38.10
Professional Rank		
Professor	10	47.62
Associate Professor	2	9.52
Assistant Professor	7	33.33
Instructor	1	4.76
Adjunct	1	4.76
Years Experience		
less than 5	6	28.57
5 to 10	3	14.29
11 to 15	0	00.00
16 to 20	3	14.29
21 or more	9	42.86
Number of Students		
less than 25	9	42.86
26 to 50	8	38.10
51 to 75	1	4.76
76 to 100	1	4.76
101 or more	2	9.52

Note. n = 21

indicated by any one of the respondents. All of the instructors in this sample are familiar with the strategies of outlining and note-taking on material read. The anticipation-realization-contemplation

(ARC) process is a strategy that is not taught in any of these instructors' social studies methods courses. ARC is also the strategy that the greatest number of instructors are either unfamiliar with or choose not to mention in their methods courses.

Almost all strategies had a specific modal response alternative. The strategies that had the greatest number of responses fall into the unaware category were reciprocal teaching (8); anticipation-reaction guide (7); and semantic feature analysis (9). The ARC strategy had an equal number of responses in the unaware and none categories (9 in each).

The greatest number of responses fell in the none area for reciprocal questioning (ReQuest) (7) and know, want to know, learned (K-W-L) (6). Along with the equal number of responses in this area and the unaware area for the ARC strategy, there were an equal number of responses given in the none and model categories for the learning log strategy.

The strategies that received the greatest number of responses in the inform area were: summary writing (9); mapping text structure (8); survey, question, read, recite, review (SQ3R) (7); guided reading procedure (7); and graphic organizers (7). One strategy, comprehension monitoring, received an equal number of responses in the inform and instruct areas (6 each).

The instruct category received the greatest number of responses for five strategies. These are: outlining (6); self-questioning (8);

Table 2

Frequency and Percentage of Responses

Strategy	Response Alternative									
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Summary Writing	1	4.76	2	9.52	9	42.86	4	19.05	5	23.81
Outlining	0	0	5	23.81	5	23.81	6	28.57	5	23.81
Mapping Text Structure	2	9.52	2	9.52	8	38.10	5	23.81	4	19.05
Comprehension Monitoring	2	9.52	4	19.05	6	28.57	6	28.57	3	14.29
Self-Questioning	1	4.76	2	9.52	4	19.05	8	38.10	6	28.57
DR-TA	3	14.29	4	19.05	3	14.29	6	28.57	5	23.81
Reciprocal Teaching	8	38.10	2	9.52	4	19.05	5	23.81	2	9.52
ReQuest	6	28.57	7	33.33	4	19.05	1	4.76	3	14.29
SQ3R	1	4.76	3	14.29	7	33.33	6	28.57	4	19.05
Guided Reading Procedure	2	9.52	5	23.81	7	33.33	6	28.57	1	4.76
Advance Organizers	1	4.76	3	14.29	5	23.81	5	23.81	7	33.33
Graphic Organizers	3	14.29	1	4.76	7	33.33	4	19.05	6	28.57
Note-taking on Material Read	0	0	5	23.81	4	19.05	8	38.10	4	19.05
Anticipation-Reaction Guide	7	33.33	6	28.57	2	9.52	4	19.05	2	9.52

Table 2, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative									
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Placement, Type, & Level of Teacher Questions	2	9.52	3	14.29	6	28.57	1	4.76	9	42.86
PreP	5	23.81	3	14.29	4	19.05	7	33.33	2	9.52
Semantic Feature Analysis	9	42.86	4	19.05	3	14.29	4	19.05	1	4.76
ARC	9	42.86	9	42.86	2	9.52	0	0	1	4.76
Learning Logs	1	4.76	6	28.57	3	14.29	5	23.81	6	28.57
K-W-L	5	23.81	6	28.57	3	14.29	5	23.81	2	9.52

Note. n = 21.

directed reading-thinking activity (DR-TA) (6); note-taking on material read (8); and prereading plan (PreP) (7).

The model category received the highest number of responses for only two strategies. With advance organizers, model was noted seven times, and placement, type, and level of teacher questioning was noted nine times by the respondents.

In summary, when considering the responses to all 20 strategies, the unaware alternative received 68 responses, or an average of 16% of the selections. The alternative none was indicated 82 times for an average of 20% of the time. The inform and instruct alternatives were

both selected 96 times by the respondents, an average of 23% of the time. Model, the fifth alternative, received 75 responses for an average selection rate of 19%.

In Table 3, the percentage of responses for each alternative was multiplied by a point value assigned to each alternative. A total point value was then derived for each strategy by adding the subtotals of the alternatives. Since the alternatives follow a hierarchical pattern, the point value afforded to each was:

unaware - 0

none - 1

inform - 2

instruct - 3

model - 4

Using the total point value received by each strategy, the strategies were then rank ordered moving from the highest to the lowest total points.

If all respondents had indicated that they model any specific strategy, the total point value would be 400. There was no single strategy that obtained even 300 total points. Self-questioning received the highest total points with 276.20. This was followed by advance organizers (266.66); placement, type, and level of teacher questions (257.15); note taking on material read (252.41); and outlining (252.38) when looking for the top five.

The five strategies that received the lowest total point values were ARC (80.94), Semantic Feature Analysis (123.82), Anticipation-

Table 3

Rank Order Based on Percentage of Response Point Value

Strategy	Response Alternative										
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model		Total
	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	
Self-Questioning	4.76	0	9.52	9.52	19.05	38.10	38.10	114.30	28.57	114.28	276.20
Advance Organizers	4.76	0	14.29	14.29	23.81	47.62	23.81	71.43	33.33	133.32	266.66
Placement, type, Level of Teacher Questions	9.52	0	14.29	14.29	28.57	57.14	4.76	14.28	42.86	171.44	257.15
Note-taking on Material Read	0	0	23.81	23.81	19.05	38.10	38.10	114.30	19.05	76.20	252.41
Outlining	0	0	23.81	23.81	23.81	47.62	28.57	85.71	23.81	95.24	252.38
Summary Writing	4.76	0	9.52	9.52	42.86	85.72	19.05	57.15	23.81	95.24	247.63
Learning Logs	4.76	0	28.57	28.57	14.29	28.58	23.81	71.43	28.57	114.28	242.86

Table 3, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative										
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model		Total
	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	% Resp.	Pts.	
SQ3R	4.76	0	14.29	14.29	33.33	66.66	28.57	85.71	19.05	76.20	242.86
Graphic Organizers	14.29	0	4.76	4.76	33.33	66.66	19.05	57.15	28.57	114.28	242.85
Mapping Text Structure	9.52	0	9.52	9.52	38.10	76.20	23.81	71.43	19.05	76.20	233.35
DR-TA	14.29	0	19.05	19.05	14.29	28.58	28.57	85.71	23.81	95.24	228.58
Comprehension Monitoring	9.52	0	19.05	19.05	28.57	57.14	28.57	85.71	14.29	57.16	219.06
Guided Rdg. Procedure	9.52	0	23.81	23.81	33.33	66.66	28.57	85.71	4.76	19.04	195.22
PreP	23.81	0	14.29	14.29	19.05	38.10	33.33	99.99	9.52	38.08	190.46
K-W-L	23.81	0	28.57	28.57	14.29	28.58	23.81	71.43	9.52	38.08	166.66
Reciprocal Teaching	38.10	0	9.52	9.52	19.05	38.10	23.81	71.43	9.52	38.08	157.13

Table 3, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative										
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model		Total
	%		%		%		%		%		
	Resp.	Pts.	Resp.	Pts.	Resp.	Pts.	Resp.	Pts.	Resp.	Pts.	
ReQuest	28.57	0	33.33	33.33	19.05	38.10	4.76	14.28	14.29	57.16	142.87
Anticipation-Reaction Guide	33.33	0	28.57	28.57	9.52	19.04	19.05	57.15	9.52	38.08	142.84
Semantic Feature Analysis	42.86	0	19.05	19.05	14.29	28.58	19.05	57.15	4.76	19.04	123.82
ARC	42.86	0	42.86	42.86	9.52	19.04	0	0	4.76	19.04	80.94

Note. n = 21.

Unaware Point Value = 0
None Point Value = 1
Inform Point Value = 2
Instruct Point Value = 3
Model Point Value = 4
Highest Possible Total Points per Strategy = 400

Reaction Guide (142.84), ReQuest (142.87), and Reciprocal Teaching (157.13). The remaining ten strategies span the approximate 100 points between the top and bottom five strategies.

Associations

Table C-1, found in Appendix C, illustrates a break down of the responses according to the gender of the sample population. The number of males participating in the study greatly outnumber the females, so a comparison between the groups can not be justified. It was interesting to note that the female responses occurred at the upper end of the hierarchical ladder for a majority of the strategies.

Although an ideal balance did not exist between the members of the education and history departments in this sample population, the numbers did seem to warrant some type of comparison (see Table 4). When the percentage of responses for each strategy was averaged together for each alternative it was found that 15% of the population affiliated with the education department were unaware of some of the strategies provided. In the history department, 18% of the group were unaware of some of the strategies. There were six strategies with which all education people were aware, and seven strategies with which all history people were familiar. There were two strategies that both groups were familiar with, outlining and note-taking on material read. There were also three strategies that received the greatest percentage of responses in the unaware category from both groups. The Semantic Feature Analysis strategy received 38% of the education affiliation responses and 50% of the history affiliation responses. Reciprocal

teaching received a 31% response from the education population and a 50% response from the history population. ARC was indicated by 46% of the education respondents and 38% of the history respondents. The percentages for the unaware category for this strategy were repeated in the none category for the same strategy.

The population affiliated with the education department responded to the none category 26% of the time on the average. Those in the history department indicated this response category 9% of the time. The none category received at least one indication from the education population for every strategy provided. In contrast, there were 10 strategies that were not indicated by any of the history population. There were six strategies in which the none category received the greatest number of the responses from the education department, and two strategies in which the high number of responses were equaled in a second alternative area. For the history population, the greatest number of responses were in the none category for one strategy and one strategy received an equally high number of responses in the none and unaware categories.

The inform alternative received 25% average response rate from the members of the education population in this study. The history population responded to this alternative an average of 19% of the time. All strategies received at least one response from the education population. Three strategies received no response from the history population. The inform alternative was indicated by the subjects affiliated with the education department the greatest number

Table 4

Frequency of Responses Based on Department Affiliation

Strategy	Response Alternative									
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model	
	n[a]	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Summary Writing										
Education[b]	1	7.69	1	7.69	7	53.85	3	23.08	1	7.69
History[c]	0	0	1	12.50	2	25.00	1	12.50	4	50.00
Outlining										
Education	0	0	5	38.46	4	30.77	3	23.08	1	7.69
History	0	0	0	0	1	12.50	3	37.50	4	50.00
Mapping Text Structure										
Education	1	7.69	1	7.69	6	46.15	3	23.08	2	15.38
History	1	12.50	1	12.50	2	25.00	2	25.00	2	25.00
Comprehension Monitoring										
Education	2	15.38	3	23.08	4	30.77	3	23.08	1	7.69
History	0	0	1	12.50	2	25.00	3	37.50	2	25.00
Self-Questioning										
Education	1	7.69	2	15.38	2	15.38	3	23.08	5	38.46
History	0	0	0	0	2	25.00	5	62.50	1	12.50
DR-TA										
Education	3	23.08	1	7.69	1	7.69	4	30.77	4	30.77
History	0	0	3	37.50	2	25.00	2	25.00	1	12.50
Reciprocal Teaching										
Education	4	30.77	2	15.38	2	15.38	4	30.77	1	7.69
History	4	50.00	0	0	2	25.00	1	12.50	1	12.50
ReQuest										
Education	2	15.38	6	46.15	3	23.08	1	7.69	1	7.69
History	4	50.00	1	12.50	1	12.50	0	0	2	25.00

Table 4, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative									
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model	
	n[a]	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
SQ3R										
Education	0	0	3	23.08	5	38.46	3	23.08	2	15.38
History	1	12.50	0	0	2	25.00	3	37.50	2	25.00
Guided Reading Procedure										
Education	1	7.69	5	38.46	3	23.08	4	30.77	0	0
History	1	12.50	0	0	4	50.00	2	25.00	1	12.50
Advance Organizers										
Education	0	0	3	23.08	2	15.38	3	23.08	5	38.46
History	1	12.50	0	0	3	37.50	2	25.00	2	25.00
Graphic Organizers										
Education	2	15.38	1	7.69	6	46.15	0	0	4	30.77
History	1	12.50	0	0	1	12.50	4	50.00	2	25.00
Note-taking on Material Read										
Education	0	0	5	38.46	4	30.77	3	23.08	1	7.69
History	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	62.50	3	37.50
Anticipation-Reaction Guide										
Education	3	23.08	5	38.46	1	7.69	2	15.38	2	15.38
History	4	50.00	1	12.50	1	12.50	2	25.00	0	0
Placement, Type, & Level of Teacher Questions										
Education	0	0	3	23.08	3	23.08	0	0	7	53.85
History	2	25.00	0	0	3	37.50	1	12.50	2	25.00
PreP										
Education	5	38.46	3	23.08	3	23.08	2	15.38	0	0
History	0	0	0	0	1	12.50	5	62.50	2	25.00

Table 4, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative									
	Unaware		None		Inform		Instruct		Model	
	n[a]	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Semantic Feature Analysis										
Education	5	38.46	3	23.08	3	23.08	1	7.69	1	7.69
History	4	50.00	1	12.50	0	0	3	37.50	0	0
ARC										
Education	6	46.15	6	46.15	1	7.69	0	0	0	0
History	3	37.50	3	37.50	1	12.50	0	0	1	12.50
Learning Logs										
Education	0	0	4	30.77	3	23.08	2	15.38	4	30.77
History	1	12.50	2	25.00	0	0	3	37.50	2	25.00
K-W-L										
Education	4	30.77	5	38.46	2	15.38	2	15.38	0	0
History	1	12.50	1	12.50	1	12.50	3	37.50	2	25.00

Note. [a]n = 21. [b]Education = 13. [c]History = 8.

of times for five of the strategies. The greatest number of responses was given to this category by the history subjects for four strategies with one of these receiving an equal number in two other alternative areas.

For the instruct alternative, the people in this study affiliated with the education department responded on the average of 18% of the time. Those affiliated with the history department responded with a 31% average. One strategy, ARC, did not receive a response in this

category by either departmental field. Along with this, there was no education affiliation response to two additional strategies and no history affiliation response to one additional strategy. People from the education department indicated two strategies where their highest degree of emphasis was placed at the instruct level. But, the response percentages for these strategies at this level were equalled in other alternative areas as well. There were nine strategies where the history population placed their highest degree of emphasis at the instruct level with one of these being equal to the response percentage of another alternative.

The social studies methods faculty who were affiliated with the education department responded to the model category 16% of the time on the average. Those in the history department indicated this response category an average of 23% of the time. There were four strategies which were not indicated as being modeled by any instructor with an education affiliation and two strategies not modeled by any instructor with a history affiliation. Five strategies (placement, type, and level of teacher questioning; self-questioning; advance organizers; DR-TA; and learning logs) received faculty members in the education department's most numerous responses, two of which alone equaled other alternative areas. Three strategies (summary writing, outlining, and mapping text structure) received faculty members in the history department's most numerous responses, with one strategy having an equally high number in a second and third alternative area.

Table 5 depicts the point values attributed to each department affiliation based on alternative response percentages for each strategy and the total point value of each strategy for each of the two department affiliations. Again, the point values ranged from 0 to 4 because of the hierarchical pattern of the response alternatives. The members of this study affiliated with the education department received higher total points for seven of the strategies. Members affiliated with the history department received higher total points for 13 of the strategies.

On the hierarchical ladder, the five top-ranked strategies in the education department were: (1) placement, type, and level of teacher questioning (284.64 total points); (2) advance organizers (276.92 total points); (3) self-questioning (269.22 total points); (4) learning logs (246.15 total points); and (5) DR-TA (238.46 total points). The five top ranked strategies in the history department were: (1) outlining (337.50 total points); (2) note-taking on material read (337.50 total points); (3) PreP (312.50 total points); (4) summary writing (300.00 total points); and (5) self-questioning (287.50 total points).

The five strategies that received the lowest total point values by those affiliated with the education department were: (1) ARC (61.53 total points); (2) K-W-L (115.36 total points); (3) PreP (115.38 total points); (4) Semantic Feature Analysis (123.07 total points); and (5) ReQuest (146.14 total points). In the history department, the five strategies that received the lowest total points

Table 5

Point Values Based on Alternative Response Categories

Strategy	Response Alternative					
	Unaware[b]	None[c]	Inform[d]	Instruct[e]	Model[f]	T. Pts.[a]
Summary Writing						
Education	0	7.69	107.70	69.24	30.76	215.39
History	0	12.50	50.00	37.50	200.00	300.00
Outlining						
Education	0	38.47	61.54	69.24	30.76	200.00
History	0	0	25.00	112.50	200.00	337.50
Mapping Text Structure						
Education	0	7.69	92.30	69.24	61.52	230.75
History	0	12.50	50.00	75.00	100.00	237.50
Comprehension Monitoring						
Education	0	23.08	61.54	69.24	30.76	184.62
History	0	12.50	50.00	112.50	100.00	275.00
Self-Questioning						
Education	0	15.38	30.76	69.24	153.84	269.22
History	0	0	50.00	187.50	50.00	287.50
DR-TA						
Education	0	7.69	15.38	92.31	123.08	238.46
History	0	37.50	50.00	75.00	50.00	212.50
Reciprocal Teaching						
Education	0	15.38	30.76	92.31	30.76	169.21
History	0	0	50.00	37.50	50.00	137.50
ReQuest						
Education	0	46.15	46.16	23.07	30.76	146.14
History	0	12.50	25.00	0	100.00	137.50

Table 5, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative					
	Unaware[b]	None[c]	Inform[d]	Instruct[e]	Model[f]	T. Pts.[a]
SQ3R						
Education	0	23.08	76.92	69.24	61.52	230.76
History	0	0	50.00	112.50	100.00	262.50
Guided Reading Procedure						
Education	0	38.46	46.16	92.31	0	176.93
History	0	0	100.00	75.00	50.00	225.00
Advance Organizers						
Education	0	23.08	30.76	69.24	153.84	276.92
History	0	0	75.00	75.00	100.00	250.00
Graphic Organizers						
Education	0	7.69	92.30	0	123.08	223.07
History	0	0	25.00	150.00	100.00	275.00
Note-taking on Material Read						
Education	0	38.46	61.54	69.24	30.76	200.00
History	0	0	0	187.50	150.00	337.50
Anticipation-Reaction Guide						
Education	0	38.46	15.38	46.14	61.52	161.50
History	0	12.50	25.00	75.00	0	112.50
Placement, Type, & Level of Teacher Questions						
Education	0	23.08	46.16	0	215.40	284.64
History	0	0	75.00	37.50	100.00	212.50
PreP						
Education	0	23.08	46.16	46.14	0	115.38
History	0	0	25.00	187.50	100.00	312.50

Table 5, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative					
	Unaware[b]	None[c]	Inform[d]	Instruct[e]	Model[f]	T. Pts.[a]
Semantic Feature Analysis						
Education	0	23.08	46.16	23.07	30.76	123.07
History	0	12.50	0	112.50	0	125.00
ARC						
Education	0	46.15	15.38	0	0	61.53
History	0	37.50	25.00	0	50.00	112.50
Learning Logs						
Education	0	30.77	46.16	46.14	123.08	246.15
History	0	25.00	0	112.50	100.00	237.50
K-W-L						
Education	0	38.46	30.76	46.14	0	115.36
History	0	12.50	25.00	112.50	100.00	250.00

Note. n = 21. [a]Highest total points = 400 per strategy per department affiliate. [b]Unaware point value = 0. [c]None point value = 1. [d]Inform point value = 2. [e]Instruct point value = 3. [f]Model point value = 4.

were: (1) Anticipation-Reaction Guide (112.50 total points); (2) ARC (112.50 total points); (3) Semantic Feature Analysis (125.00 total points); (4) reciprocal teaching (137.50 total points); and (5) ReQuest (137.50 total points).

There was one strategy (self-questioning) that fell in the top five ranking order of both department affiliations. Three strategies were in the bottom five for both affiliations: ReQuest, Semantic

Feature Analysis, and ARC. One strategy, PreP, was in the bottom five for the education affiliation group and in the top five for the history affiliation group.

Table C-2 (see Appendix C) illustrates a break down of the responses according to the professional rank of the sample population. The imbalance of the numbers representing each level of faculty rank of this demographic aspect prohibited a detailed analysis of the data. The numbers in each level were too diverse to allow comparisons. It was noted that the inform alternative had at least one response for every strategy from instructors with the rank of professor. The one respondent with the rank of instructor indicated awareness of all 20 strategies, but modeled only one: placement, type, and level of teacher questioning.

Table C-3 (see Appendix C) depicts the frequency of responses based on the number of years of experience the respondents have. As data represented in this table illustrate, the number of years of experience did not seem to greatly affect the degree of emphasis placed on the strategies by the members of this sample population. Although the 16 to 20 years experience group has only 3 members, it is interesting to note that they did not indicate that they modeled any of the strategies listed.

A break down of the respondents according to the number of students they have in their social studies methods classes each year also reflected an imbalance in categorical population (see Table C-4 in Appendix C). A wide variation in responses across the alternatives

and student numbers was noted when considering all the strategies. The respondent who has 76-100 students in his/her social studies methods classes was aware of all but the semantic feature analysis strategy. The students in this instructor's classes were also at least informed of the other 19 strategies.

The data obtained from this study revealed some pertinent and interesting information relevant to one aspect of social studies methods courses. From these results, some conclusions can be drawn and implications for future research can be made.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

The summary, discussion, and implications of the study are presented in this chapter. The first part of this chapter summarizes the information presented in the literature review and the data analysis. Next, the findings of this study are discussed. In the final section of this chapter, implications for further research are suggested.

Summary

The need for students to receive instruction in how to read expository material has been recognized and recommended since the beginning of the 20th century (Dishner & Olson, 1989). But generally, such instruction has not been implemented in our schools to date (Ratekin et al., 1985).

Aware of the problem, educators have developed, researched, and validated the effectiveness of specific reading- and writing-to-learn strategies. Recognizing the need for changes to occur in our educational systems, some steps have been taken by most state educational agencies to help alter current teaching practices (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984). Unfortunately, the impact made by the actions of these groups seems to be minimal (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1990).

Considering the fact that the omission of instruction in reading- and writing-to-learn has long been common practice, we can not expect

teachers today to implement instruction in how to read expository material based on the role models they had as elementary and secondary education students. According to Lortie (1975), we teach as we have been taught unless we have significant training to do otherwise. The examination of teacher preparation programs, and more specifically content area methods courses, seemed warranted to investigate the degree to which reading- and writing-to-learn strategies were emphasized in these teacher training classes. By determining if significant training was occurring, it was believed that one possible cause for the discrepancy between the advocated and actual implementation of content area reading instruction may be found.

It was not within the scope of this study to investigate all content area methods courses nationwide. Since the study appeared to be the first of this nature and thus, in a sense, a preliminary investigation, it was limited to social studies methods instructors and courses in Region Four of the TECSCU organization. It was realized that limiting the population would prohibit generalizations being made for all colleges and universities and across all disciplines. But, it was believed that this study would provide some insight into an area that was as yet unexplored.

A questionnaire designed by the investigator was mailed to an initial population of 31 instructors. Based on information received from respondents, the population was reduced to 28. Twenty-one replies, a 75% response rate, were used to summarize the findings.

The demographic information revealed that the majority of the respondents were male and affiliated with the department of education. Approximately 81% of the respondents had a professional rank of professor (47.62%) or assistant professor (33.33%). The majority of the respondents had either 21 or more years of experience (approximately 43%), or less than 5 years of experience (approximately 29%) in social studies methods courses. Most of these instructors (about 81%) had fewer than 50 students enrolled in their social studies methods courses each year.

The respondents were asked to indicate their awareness of and the degree of emphasis they placed on 20 separate reading- and writing-to-learn strategies in their social studies methods courses. The responses varied greatly across the five alternatives and through the 20 strategies. All respondents were familiar with only two strategies, outlining and note-taking on material read. Eighteen of the 21 respondents were either unfamiliar with or chose not to refer to the ARC strategy in their social studies methods courses. Each response alternative was indicated by the respondents by the following average percentages when considering all strategies:

(a) unaware: 16%

(b) none: 20%

(c) inform: 23%

(d) instruct: 23%

(e) model: 19%

A rank order of the strategies was determined by multiplying the percentage of responses for each alternative by a point value assigned to each alternative. Based on the total point value of each strategy, it was found that respectively self-questioning and advance organizers were the strategies that received the most emphasis from the instructors. ARC followed by Semantic Feature Analysis were the strategies which received the lowest total point values.

Few comparisons were made between the demographic information and response alternative selections because of the wide diversity in the demographic numbers. Some interesting patterns were noticed however. They were:

1. Although males greatly outnumbered females in this population, the female responses occurred at the upper end of the hierarchical ladder for a majority of the strategies, indicating that females instructed and modeled more of the reading- and writing-to-learn strategies listed in this study.

2. The respondents affiliated with the history department indicated more positive responses to the strategies in comparison to the respondents affiliated with the education department.

3. The inform alternative had at least one response for every strategy from instructors with the rank of professor.

4. The number of years of experience did not seem to greatly affect the degree of emphasis placed on the strategies overall, but those with 16 to 20 years of experience did not indicate modeling any of the strategies listed.

5. The number of students enrolled in the social studies methods courses each year did not seem to affect the degree of emphasis placed on the strategies by the instructors.

Discussion

Broad, definite conclusions can not be drawn from this study because of (a) the restricted area the population is drawn from, (b) the small number in the population, and (c) the diversity in the numbers representing various components of this population. However, the results of this study led to interesting conclusions about the population investigated.

First, it would seem that the students enrolled in the social studies methods courses taught by these respondents are not receiving the depth of instruction needed in reading- and writing-to-learn strategies which will sufficiently prepare them to incorporate the strategies in their own classrooms. Only 19% of the respondents model these reading- and writing-to-learn strategies and 23% teach them. It is easy to understand why many teachers feel they are inadequately prepared to teach students how to read-to-learn in their content areas (Farrell & Cirrincione, 1984). The students are typically not receiving any experience with the strategies in their precollegiate educational years, so the extensive training that was noted by Lortie (1975) that is necessary to initiate change in teaching practices would not seem to be occurring.

A study by Lloyd (1987a) indicated that many content teachers are not even aware of the strategies that children can use to comprehend

content material. The results of this study lend themselves to a partial explanation for Lloyd's findings. The social studies methods instructors themselves were unaware of 16% of the strategies and chose not to inform their students of 20% of the strategies. The instructors did inform their students of 23% of the strategies but this was probably done through a lecture format which we know is ineffective in the acquisition of skills and methods (Katz & Raths, 1982). Therefore, the information may have been overlooked or received scant attention by the students during note-taking or studying processes. Undoubtedly, the combination of the instructor's responses to these lower level alternatives (approximately 59%) indicates a lack of attention to and emphasis on reading- and writing-to-learn strategies on the methods instructors parts. Since these methods instructors do not indicate that reading- and writing-to-learn strategies are important and relevant, it is difficult to surmise where the students would develop the realization of their value.

Second, because of the diverse responses across and through the list of strategies, there must be reasons other than sex, department affiliation, experience, professional rank, or class loads that inhibit the degree of emphasis placed on reading- and writing-to-learn strategies in the social studies methods courses by the instructors. Possible reasons could be that the college instructors do not:

1. realize the value of the strategies.

2. feel familiar enough with the strategies, or are unaware of the strategies.

3. realize the impact that can have on their students' teaching practices.

4. consider it their responsibility to extensively deal with the strategies.

5. think there is enough time to incorporate the strategies into course objectives.

If these conjectured explanations proved to be valid, it would seem that our teacher preparatory programs need restructuring to allow preparation of teachers to teach reading- and writing-to-learn strategies. Not only do we need to reach teachers in the field through inservice programs, we need to provide instruction to the preservice instructors of the future teachers. By implementing programs at the professional level, the calls for reform requested by many (Breiter, 1988; Early, 1988; Richardson, 1987; Wolf, 1984) could become a reality. Inservice programs at the college level would also initiate not only the cooperation between reading and content area methods courses instructors encouraged by Farrell and Cirrincione (1986) but cooperation between many instructors and departments at the postsecondary level.

Third, based on the total point values of each strategy per department affiliation, it seems to this investigator that college instructors affiliated with a history department place more emphasis on the strategies overall than do instructors with an affiliation to education departments. This is a rather curious finding, if one considers the typical educational backgrounds of the two groups along

with the subject matter of the literature normally connected with each field.

Maybe, through their experiences in teaching content information at the precollegiate or college levels, the instructors affiliated with history departments more fully realize the need and the value of reading- and writing-to-learn strategies. Based on their realizations, they may have sought more information regarding reading- and writing-to-learn strategies, and they may have made a more concerted effort to impart their findings and knowledge to the students in their methods classes.

Instructors affiliated with the education departments undoubtedly have diverse educational experiences. Their experiences may not reinforce the need and value of reading- and writing-to-learn strategies that are advocated for content learning as strongly as those instructors affiliated with history departments. In short, education affiliates may be aware of or realize the need for such strategies in theory but not in practice. Thus, the methods instructors affiliated with education departments may not place as much emphasis on reading- and writing-to-learn strategies in their methods courses.

It is not clear from this study why this finding occurred with this population, but it certainly warrants further investigation. There is a need to determine if these results would be found again, and, if so, why this would be true.

Implications for Future Research

Although this study did not allow broad, definite conclusions to be drawn, it did generate a number of questions which could initiate additional research in this area. Some suggestions follow:

1. Initiate a study in an attempt to ascertain the course objectives for teacher preparatory methods classes. This could possibly be accomplished by an examination of the portfolios submitted to the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) organization.

2. Duplicate this study on a broader scale to obtain a more in-depth and valid depiction of social studies methods instructors in regard to their familiarity with and the degree of emphasis they place on reading- and writing-to-learn strategies.

3. Conduct a qualitative study to ascertain the reasons for reading- and writing-to-learn strategies not being emphasized to a more extensive degree by instructors of social studies methods courses.

4. Conduct a study with another population to ascertain if instructors affiliated with history departments place more emphasis on reading- and writing-to-learn strategies than instructors affiliated with education departments. If it occurred with another population, then determine why.

5. Investigate and determine how instructors at the university and college level become familiarized with various reading- and writing-to-learn strategies.

6. Survey the students of the instructors of social studies methods courses to determine if their impression of the degree of emphasis placed on the strategies by the instructors of the courses coincides with that indicated by the instructors.

7. Initiate investigations into the methods courses relevant to other content areas and compare results across the disciplines.

8. Implement a series of studies that examine all college level instructors' familiarity with reading- and writing-to-learn strategies, the degree to which they incorporate the strategies in their courses, and if the strategies are incorporated into only some of the courses they are responsible for.

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APPENDIX A

Region 4 TECSCU Organization

Region 4

TECSCU Organization

College of Education
Chicago State University
95th Street at King Drive
Chicago, IL 60628

School of Education
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston, IL 61920

College of Human Learning and Development
Governors State University
Park Forest South, IL 60466

College of Education
Illinois State University
533 DeGarmo Hall
Normal, IL 61761

College of Education
Northern Illinois University
Graham Hall 321
DeKalb, IL 60115

School of Education
Southern Illinois University
Edwardsville, IL 62026

College of Education
Western Illinois University
Horrabin Hall 76A
Macomb, IL 61455

School of Education
University of Northern Iowa
Cedar Falls, IA 50613

School of Education, Health & Human Services
Central Michigan University
Mt. Pleasant, MI 48859

College of Education
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197

School of Education and Learning Resources
Ferris State College
Big Rapids, MI 49307

School of Education
Oakland University
Rochester, MI 48063

College of Education
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, MI 49008

Division of Professional and Applied Studies
Bemidji State University
Bemidji, MN 56601

Education and Regional Services
Moorhead State University
Moorhead, MN 56560

School of Education
University of Wisconsin
Eau Claire, WI 54701

College of Education
University of Wisconsin - LaCrosse
LaCrosse, WI 54601

College of Education and Human Services
University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh
Oshkosh, WI 54901

Division of Education
University of Wisconsin - Parkside
Kenosha, WI 53141

College of Education
University of Wisconsin - Platteville
Doudna 147
Platteville, WI 43818

College of Education
University of Wisconsin - River Falls
River Falls, WI 54022

Professional Studies
University of Wisconsin - Stevens Point
Stevens Point, WI 54481

School of Education
University of Wisconsin - Stout
Menomonie, WI 54751

Division of Education
University of Wisconsin - Superior
Superior, WI 54880

College of Education
University of Wisconsin - Whitewater
Whitewater, WI 53190

APPENDIX B

Final Letter and Questionnaire

February 16, 1990

Dear :

As teacher educators, we want to prepare our students for their future careers to the best of our abilities. Identification of the techniques and strategies that we use in our methods courses is of value to all in the educational field. The degree to which reading- and writing-to-learn strategies are emphasized in the social studies methods courses is one area that does not appear to have been investigated. Such a study would provide us with some valuable information relevant to the preparation of our future teachers.

Therefore, for my master's degree thesis, I have prepared a survey instrument which should provide some insight into this topic. The instruction of social studies methods courses falls within your realm of expertise at a teacher preparatory institution, so I would appreciate your taking about five minutes to complete this confidential questionnaire and then returning it in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope by February 26, 1990. An identification number has been used for follow-up and analysis purposes, but the confidentiality of all respondents will be retained. Names of individuals and institutions will not be used in reporting results.

Your participation in this survey is critical. A large percentage of responses will ensure that the results depict a more accurate and valid representation of the practices in this field. I will be sending a summary of the survey results to all who respond.

Your cooperation is deeply appreciated.

Sincerely,

Sandie L. Baade, Graduate Assistant
Dept. of Curriculum & Instruction

SLB:jt
Encl.

Curriculum and Instruction 618 Education Center Cedar Falls, Iowa 50614-0606 (319) 273-2167 FAX: (319) 273-6997

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please respond to each section by placing a mark on the appropriate line or by providing the requested information.

SEX:
____Male
____Female

DEPT. AFFILITATION:
____Education
____History
____Other (Please Specify)
_____

PROFESSIONAL RANK:
____Professor
____Associate Professor
____Assistant Professor
____Instructor
____Adjunct
____Other (Please Specify)
_____

Years experience as a social studies methods instructor:
_____less than 5, _____5-10, _____11-15, _____16-20, _____over 21

Approximate number of secondary education students in your social studies methods classes each year. _____less than 25, _____26-50, _____51-75, _____76-100, _____over 101

Several reading and writing strategies have been developed for teachers to use during instruction to enhance their students' abilities to learn from texts and other course materials. Following is a list of some of these teaching strategies that can be used in the social studies classroom. A brief description of each strategy is attached for your reference. **Please circle the single response that best indicates the degree of emphasis that you place on each strategy in your social studies methods classes.** Response alternatives are defined as follows:

UNAWARE: You are unfamiliar with the strategy.

NONE: You are familiar with the strategy but prefer not to refer to it in your methods classes.

INFORM: You make reference to the strategy in your methods classes but do not directly teach your students how it is implemented.

INSTRUCT: You teach your methods students the appropriate steps involved in the strategy so that they can promote the use of the strategy in their secondary classrooms.

MODEL: After instruction, you enhance your students' understanding of the strategy by demonstrating and/or by implementing the strategy in your own teaching.

1. Summary writing.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

2. Outlining.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

3. Mapping text structure.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

4. Comprehension monitoring.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

5. Self-questioning.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

6. Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA).

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

7. Reciprocal teaching.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

8. Reciprocal Questioning (ReQuest).

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

9. Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review (SQ3R).

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

10. Guided Reading Procedure.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

11. Advance organizers.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

12. Graphic organizers.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

13. Note-taking on material read.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

14. Anticipation-Reaction Guide.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

15. Placement, type, and level of teacher questioning.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

16. Prereading Plan (PreP).

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

17. Semantic Feature Analysis.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

18. Anticipation-Realization-Contemplation (ARC).

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

19. Learning Logs.

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

20. Know, Want to Know, Learned (K-W-L).

Unaware None Inform Instruct Model

Please attach any other reading and writing strategies with which you are familiar and indicate the degree of emphasis that you place on each in your methods classes using the above response alternatives. Thank you. Sandie Baade.

Brief Definition of Strategies for the Questionnaire by Sandie Baade

1. Summary Writing

Provides students experience in following systematic steps or rules to form a written distillation of major concepts and relationships found in text information. The procedure not only provides a written record, but the process itself contributes to comprehension and retention of text concepts.

2. Outlining

Provides a rationale and strategy for careful analysis and synthesis of concept relationships in text material. Allows freedom from classical, restrictive forms of outlining, and serves not only as a note-taking product but also as a means of comprehending and retaining text concepts.

3. Mapping text structure

Procedures for constructing a visual display that reveals the logical flow or structure among text concepts related to a central topic or question. The strategy moves from teacher modeling to individual student application as a means of reflecting on concepts encountered in text materials.

4. Comprehension Monitoring

A variety of modeling and guidance procedures to enhance students' awareness of their own comprehension during reading. Abilities include (1) decision making before reading concerning purposes and reading approaches, (2) reflections during reading concerning how well information is being understood and purposes are being realized, (3) identifying sources of difficulty, and (4) steps to remove interferences to comprehension.

5. Self-Questioning

Strategies to help students become independent in creating their own questions to guide their search for meaningful text information.

6. Directed Reading/Thinking Activity

On the basis of the title, topic, or picture related to a text passage, students predict anticipated content and then read to verify predictions. Discussion after reading centers on accuracy or limitations in predictions. Teacher questioning centers on procedures rather than on content.

7. Reciprocal Teaching

In a small-group setting the teacher models a four-part response to a brief reading selection: summarization of key concepts, clarifying difficult concepts, asking 1 or 2 questions, and predicting content of the next section. Responsibility for the same procedure then moves to the students, who take turns with the process on succeeding sections of a passage. Several small groups may proceed simultaneously under teacher observation.

8. Reciprocal Questioning

Teacher and students simultaneously silently read a brief section of an assigned passage. Teacher closes book and students ask teacher questions over the section. Then students close books and the teacher asks students questions over the same passage, with a special interest in modeling questions requiring higher level thinking as well as predictions. The process is repeated, then students complete reading the entire passage.

9. SQ3R

A classic format for studying a text chapter, including (1) a Survey of content based and titles, headings and graphics, (2) generating Questions from the survey to be answered during reading (3) Reading to answer the questions, (4) Pausing at appropriate points to Recite concepts presented and make notes, and (5) a Review of notes and relationships of concepts.

10. Guided Reading Procedure

A strategy to provide a close reading and retention of text information. After an introduction, students are asked to read the selection to remember as much as possible. After reading, students put text aside and brainstorm all information recalled while the teacher records ideas on the chalkboard. Then students check text for significant ideas omitted. Ideas recalled are then organized into an outline or graphic web. The experience is followed by a quiz over the text information.

11. Advance Organizer

Experiences before reading to establish readiness for categories or types of content to be found in an assigned passage. Advance organizers may include an introductory brief passage on the topic or an introduction of specific terms that label categories of concepts that will confront students while reading the text passage.

12. Graphic Organizer

A visual display of key terms presented to students as an overview of concepts to be discovered while reading a selection. Terms are arranged to visually reflect the structure of relationships among text concepts.

13. Note-Taking

Direct instruction in annotating information from text including processes that determine concepts to select for note-taking, note-taking format, and the use of notes for reviewing.

14. Anticipation-Reaction Guide

A procedure in which students respond to a list of statements before reading and to the same statements again after reading. Provides motivation through prediction and verification and is especially useful for areas in which students tend to have misconceptions.

15. Placement, Type, and Level of Teacher Questioning.

A body of information concerning the relative value of asking student questions to be answered by text information before they read, interspersed at points within the passage or after reading is completed; also includes information related to the level and content of thinking required to answer different types of questions.

16. Prereading Plan

An assessment/instructional activity that helps a teacher estimate the levels of background knowledge that students bring to a text assignment. Also fosters group discussion and an awareness of topics to be covered.

17. Semantic Feature Analysis

An activity in which students fill in cells within a matrix format to help them review and learn text concepts through discriminating characteristics of specific items. (Columns and rows of the matrix are labeled with concepts and characteristics).

18. A/R/C (Anticipation, Realization, Contemplation)

A structure for a text based learning experience in which students Anticipate categories and concepts within a text passage, Realize the meaning of the passage utilizing a coded response system, and Contemplate the relationship between initial predictions and discoveries during reading.

19. Learning Logs

Students keep an on-going record of their classroom learning experiences including concepts understood, difficulties confronted, and personal reactions. Provides insight into students learning.

20. K-W-L (Know, Want to know, Learned)

A questioning strategy to draw from students what they already know, what they want to know on a topic, and what they learned and still need to know about the topic.

APPENDIX C

Tables

Table C-1

Frequency of Responses Based on Gender

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Summary Writing					
Male[a]	1	2	8	3	4
Female[b]	0	0	1	1	1
Outlining					
Male	0	4	3	6	5
Female	0	1	2	0	0
Mapping Text Structure					
Male	2	2	6	4	4
Female	0	0	2	1	0
Comprehension Monitoring					
Male	2	4	6	4	2
Female	0	0	0	2	1
Self-Questioning					
Male	1	2	4	7	4
Female	0	0	0	1	2
DR-TA					
Male	3	4	3	5	3
Female	0	0	0	1	2
Reciprocal Teaching					
Male	8	2	3	4	1
Female	0	0	1	1	1
ReQuest					
Male	6	6	3	1	2
Female	0	1	1	0	1

Table C-1, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
SQ3R					
Male	1	2	6	5	4
Female	0	1	1	1	0
Guided Reading Procedure					
Male	2	4	6	5	1
Female	0	1	1	1	0
Advance Organizers					
Male	1	3	5	4	5
Female	0	0	0	1	2
Graphic Organizers					
Male	3	1	6	4	4
Female	0	0	1	0	2
Note-taking on Material Read					
Male	0	3	4	7	4
Female	0	2	0	1	0
Anticipation-Reaction Guide					
Male	7	5	2	3	1
Female	0	1	0	1	1
Placement, Type, & Level of Teacher Questions					
Male	2	3	5	1	7
Female	0	0	1	0	2
PreP					
Male	4	3	4	5	2
Female	1	0	0	2	0

Table C-1, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Semantic Feature Analysis					
Male	9	2	3	3	1
Female	0	2	0	1	0
ARC					
Male	9	6	2	0	1
Female	0	3	0	0	0
Learning Logs					
Male	1	6	2	5	4
Female	0	0	1	0	2
K-W-L					
Male	5	4	3	4	2
Female	0	2	0	1	0

Note. n = 21. [a]Male = 18. [b]Female = 3.

Table C-2

Frequency of Responses Based on Professional Rank

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Summary Writing					
Professor[a]	0	1	6	2	1
Assoc. Professor[b]	1	0	0	1	0
Asst. Professor[c]	0	1	2	1	3
Instructor[d]	0	0	1	0	0
Adjunct[e]	0	0	0	0	1
Outlining					
Professor	0	2	1	5	2
Assoc. Professor	0	1	0	1	0
Asst. Professor	0	1	3	0	3
Instructor	0	1	0	0	0
Adjunct	0	0	1	0	0
Mapping Text Structure					
Professor	1	1	3	3	2
Assoc. Professor	1	0	0	1	0
Asst. Professor	0	1	3	1	2
Instructor	0	0	1	0	0
Adjunct	0	0	1	0	0
Comprehension Monitoring					
Professor	1	1	4	3	1
Assoc. Professor	0	2	0	0	0
Asst. Professor	1	1	2	1	2
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	1	0

Table C-2, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Self-Questioning					
Professor	0	0	3	4	3
Assoc. Professor	0	1	0	0	1
Asst. Professor	1	1	1	3	1
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	0	1
DR-TA					
Professor	1	3	1	4	1
Assoc. Professor	1	0	0	1	0
Asst. Professor	1	1	2	0	3
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	0	1
Reciprocal Teaching					
Professor	3	1	1	4	1
Assoc. Professor	1	1	0	0	0
Asst. Professor	4	0	2	0	1
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	1	0	0
ReQuest					
Professor	1	3	3	1	2
Assoc. Professor	1	1	0	0	0
Asst. Professor	4	2	0	0	1
Instructor	0	0	1	0	0
Adjunct	0	1	0	0	0
SQ3R					
Professor	0	0	4	3	3
Assoc. Professor	0	1	0	1	0
Asst. Professor	1	2	2	1	1
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	1	0	0

Table C-2, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Guided Reading Procedure					
Professor	0	2	4	3	1
Assoc. Professor	1	1	0	0	0
Asst. Professor	1	2	2	2	0
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	1	0	0
Advance Organizers					
Professor	0	3	2	2	3
Assoc. Professor	0	0	1	1	0
Asst. Professor	1	0	2	1	3
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	0	1
Graphic Organizers					
Professor	0	1	4	1	4
Assoc. Professor	1	0	1	0	0
Asst. Professor	2	0	1	3	1
Instructor	0	0	1	0	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	0	1
Note-taking on Material Read					
Professor	0	1	3	3	3
Assoc. Professor	0	1	0	1	0
Asst. Professor	0	2	1	3	1
Instructor	0	1	0	0	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	1	0
Anticipation-Reaction Guide					
Professor	2	3	2	2	1
Assoc. Professor	1	1	0	0	0
Asst. Professor	4	2	0	1	0
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	0	1

Table C-2, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Placement, Type, & Level of Teacher Questions					
Professor	0	3	3	1	3
Assoc. Professor	0	0	1	0	1
Asst. Professor	2	0	1	0	4
Instructor	0	0	0	0	1
Adjunct	0	0	1	0	0
PreP					
Professor	2	2	2	4	0
Assoc. Professor	1	0	1	0	0
Asst. Professor	1	1	1	2	2
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	1	0	0	0	0
Semantic Feature Analysis					
Professor	4	1	2	3	0
Assoc. Professor	1	0	1	0	0
Asst. Professor	4	2	0	0	1
Instructor	0	0	0	1	0
Adjunct	0	1	0	0	0
ARC					
Professor	3	4	2	0	1
Assoc. Professor	1	1	0	0	0
Asst. Professor	5	2	0	0	0
Instructor	0	1	0	0	0
Adjunct	0	1	0	0	0
Learning Logs					
Professor	0	3	2	3	2
Assoc. Professor	0	2	0	0	0
Asst. Professor	1	1	0	2	3
Instructor	0	0	1	0	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	0	1

Table C-2, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
K-W-L					
Professor	2	3	1	3	1
Assoc. Professor	1	0	1	0	0
Asst. Professor	2	2	1	1	1
Instructor	0	1	0	0	0
Adjunct	0	0	0	1	0

Note. n = 21. [a]Professor = 10. [b]Assoc. Professor = 2. [c]Asst. Professor = 7. [d]Instructor = 1. [3]Adjunct = 1.

Table C-3

Frequency of Responses Based on Number of Years of Experience

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Summary Writing					
Less than 5[a]	0	1	2	1	2
5 - 10[b]	0	0	0	1	2
16 - 20[c]	1	1	1	0	0
Over 21[d]	0	0	6	2	1
Outlining					
Less than 5	0	2	3	0	1
5 - 10	0	0	0	1	2
16 - 20	0	2	0	1	0
Over 21	0	1	2	4	2
Mapping Text Structure					
Less than 5	0	0	4	1	1
5 - 10	0	1	0	1	1
16 - 20	1	0	1	1	0
Over 21	1	1	3	2	2
Comprehension Monitoring					
Less than 5	0	0	2	3	1
5 - 10	0	2	0	0	1
16 - 20	0	1	2	0	0
Over 21	2	1	2	3	1
Self-Questioning					
Less than 5	0	1	0	3	2
5 - 10	0	0	1	1	1
16 - 20	0	1	1	1	0
Over 21	1	0	2	3	3

Table C-3, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
DR-TA					
Less than 5	1	1	1	1	2
5 - 10	0	0	1	1	1
16 - 20	2	1	0	0	0
Over 21	0	2	1	4	2
Reciprocal Teaching					
Less than 5	1	0	3	1	1
5 - 10	2	1	0	0	0
16 - 20	2	0	1	0	0
Over 21	3	1	0	4	1
ReQuest					
Less than 5	1	3	1	0	1
5 - 10	2	1	0	0	0
16 - 20	1	0	2	0	0
Over 21	2	3	1	1	2
SQ3R					
Less than 5	1	2	2	1	0
5 - 10	0	0	0	2	1
16 - 20	0	1	2	0	0
Over 21	0	0	3	3	3
Guided Reading Procedure					
Less than 5	0	2	2	2	0
5 - 10	1	1	1	0	0
16 - 20	1	1	1	0	0
Over 21	0	1	3	4	1
Advance Organizers					
Less than 5	1	0	2	1	2
5 - 10	0	0	1	1	1
16 - 20	0	1	1	1	0
Over 21	0	2	1	2	4

Table C-3, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Graphic Organizers					
Less than 5	1	0	2	1	2
5 - 10	0	0	1	2	0
16 - 20	1	0	1	1	0
Over 21	1	1	3	0	4
Note-taking on Material Read					
Less than 5	0	3	0	3	0
5 - 10	0	0	0	2	1
16 - 20	0	2	0	1	0
Over 21	0	0	4	2	3
Anticipation-Reaction Guide					
Less than 5	1	2	0	2	1
5 - 10	2	1	0	0	0
16 - 20	2	1	0	0	0
Over 21	2	2	2	2	1
Placement, Type, & Level of Teacher Questions					
Less than 5	0	0	2	0	4
5 - 10	2	0	0	0	1
16 - 20	0	1	2	0	0
Over 21	0	2	2	1	4
PreP					
Less than 5	1	1	1	3	0
5 - 10	0	0	1	0	2
16 - 20	1	1	0	1	0
Over 21	3	1	2	3	0
Semantic Feature Analysis					
Less than 5	2	3	0	1	0
5 - 10	2	0	1	0	0
16 - 20	2	0	1	0	0
Over 21	3	1	1	3	1

Table C-3, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
ARC					
Less than 5	2	4	0	0	0
5 - 10	2	1	0	0	0
16 - 20	1	2	0	0	0
Over 21	4	2	2	0	1
Learning Logs					
Less than 5	0	1	1	2	2
5 - 10	1	1	0	0	1
16 - 20	0	2	0	1	0
Over 21	0	2	2	2	3
K-W-L					
Less than 5	0	3	1	2	0
5 - 10	1	0	1	0	1
16 - 20	1	0	1	1	0
Over 21	3	3	0	2	1

Note. n = 21. [a]Less than 5 = 6. [b]5 - 10 = 3. [c]16 - 20 = 3. [d]Over 21 = 9.

Table C-4

Frequency of Responses Based on Approximate Number of Students in Social Studies Methods Classes Each Year

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Summary Writing					
Less than 25[a]	1	2	3	2	1
26 - 50[b]	0	0	5	0	3
51 - 75[c]	0	0	1	0	0
76 - 100[d]	0	0	0	1	0
Over 101[e]	0	0	0	1	1
Outlining					
Less than 25	0	4	2	2	1
26 - 50	0	1	2	3	2
51 - 75	0	0	0	1	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	0	1
Over 101	0	0	1	0	1
Mapping Text Structure					
Less than 25	1	1	4	3	0
26 - 50	1	0	3	1	3
51 - 75	0	1	0	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	0	1
Over 101	0	0	1	1	0
Comprehension Monitoring					
Less than 25	0	4	3	1	1
26 - 50	2	0	2	3	1
51 - 75	0	0	0	1	0
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	0	0	0	1	1

Table C-4, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Self-Questioning					
Less than 25	0	1	3	3	2
26 - 50	1	1	1	4	1
51 - 75	0	0	0	1	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	0	1
Over 101	0	0	0	0	2
DR-TA					
Less than 25	2	1	1	3	2
26 - 50	1	3	1	2	1
51 - 75	0	0	0	0	1
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	0	0	0	1	1
Reciprocal Teaching					
Less than 25	5	1	1	1	1
26 - 50	3	1	2	2	0
51 - 75	0	0	0	1	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	1	0
Over 101	0	0	1	0	1
ReQuest					
Less than 25	3	2	3	0	1
26 - 50	3	3	0	1	1
51 - 75	0	1	0	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	0	1	0	0	1
SQ3R					
Less than 25	1	2	2	3	1
26 - 50	0	1	3	1	3
51 - 75	0	0	1	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	1	0
Over 101	0	0	1	1	0

Table C-4, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Guided Reading Procedure					
Less than 25	1	3	2	3	0
26 - 50	1	1	4	2	0
51 - 75	0	1	0	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	1	0
Over 101	0	0	1	0	1
Advance Organizers					
Less than 25	1	2	2	3	1
26 - 50	0	1	3	1	3
51 - 75	0	0	0	0	1
76 - 100	0	0	0	1	0
Over 101	0	0	0	0	2
Graphic Organizers					
Less than 25	2	0	4	2	1
26 - 50	1	1	2	2	2
51 - 75	0	0	0	0	1
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	0	0	0	0	2
Note-taking on Material Read					
Less than 25	0	4	1	3	1
26 - 50	0	1	2	4	1
51 - 75	0	0	0	0	1
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	0	0	0	1	1
Anticipation-Reaction Guide					
Less than 25	5	3	0	1	0
26 - 50	2	3	1	2	0
51 - 75	0	0	0	1	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	0	1
Over 101	0	0	1	0	1

Table C-4, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
Placement, Type, & Level of Teacher Questions					
Less than 25	1	1	2	0	5
26 - 50	1	2	2	1	2
51 - 75	0	0	1	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	0	1
Over 101	0	0	1	0	1
PreP					
Less than 25	2	1	2	3	1
26 - 50	2	1	1	3	1
51 - 75	0	1	0	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	1	0	0	1	0
Semantic Feature Analysis					
Less than 25	4	2	2	1	0
26 - 50	3	1	1	2	1
51 - 75	1	0	0	0	0
76 - 100	1	0	0	0	0
Over 101	0	1	0	1	0
ARC					
Less than 25	4	5	0	0	0
26 - 50	4	3	1	0	0
51 - 75	1	0	0	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	0	1	0	0	1
Learning Logs					
Less than 25	1	4	1	2	1
26 - 50	0	2	1	3	2
51 - 75	0	0	0	0	1
76 - 100	0	0	1	0	0
Over 101	0	0	0	0	2

Table C-4, cont.

Strategy	Response Alternative				
	Unaware	None	Inform	Instruct	Model
K-W-L					
Less than 25	3	2	2	2	0
26 - 50	2	3	1	1	1
51 - 75	0	1	0	0	0
76 - 100	0	0	0	1	0
Over 101	0	0	0	1	1

Note. n = 21. [a]Less than 25 = 9. [b]26 - 50 = 8. [c]51 - 75 = 1. [d]76 - 100 = 1. [e]Over 101 = 2.